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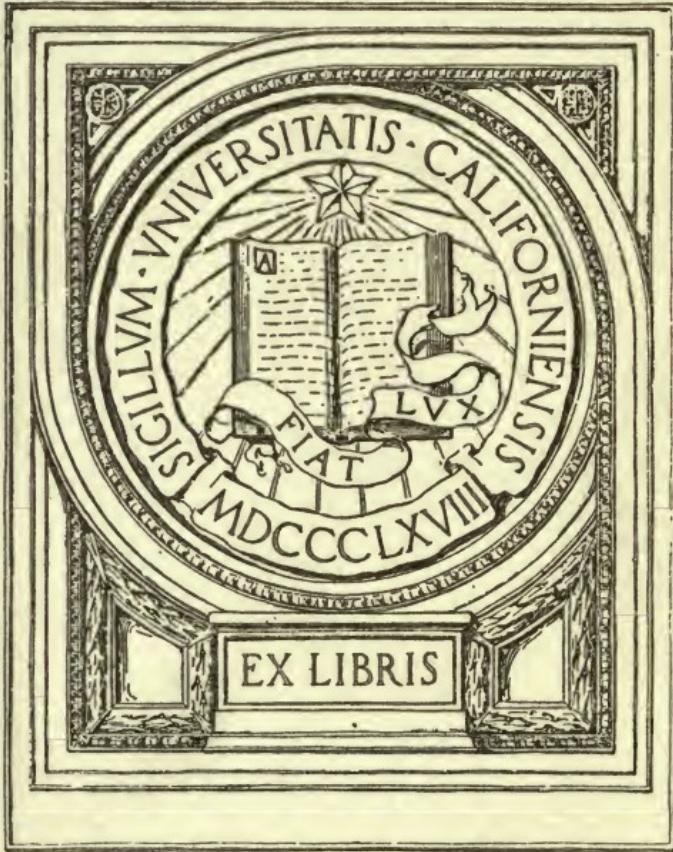
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GREENE'S INTRODUCTION.



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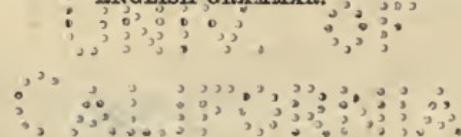
AN
INTRODUCTION
TO THE STUDY OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY

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"ENGLISH GRAMMAR."



Res ante verba.—COMENIUS.

PHILADELPHIA:
COWPERTHWAIT & CO.

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PREFACE.

THE aim of this Introduction to the study of English Grammar, is to aid the learner by a systematic course of exercises in his *actual use* of the language. He is expected to speak with care, to write daily, to observe the expressions of others, to imitate good models, to invent many illustrative examples, to amend all awkward, low, and unsuitable phrases, and to correct perseveringly every known error into which he has unconsciously fallen. In short, he is to begin upon his present fund of language, and improve it by revising, correcting, extending, refining, and elevating it.

His present fund he has acquired almost unconsciously, not from grammars or lexicons, but from his daily intercourse with associates and with the objects and scenes around him. Words, expressions, and modes of construction have come to him by imitation. He discovers their meaning and use by an instinctive glance at their immediate application. Correct or incorrect, he seizes upon and appropriates a phrase, simply because others use it to express what he wishes to express. Used a few times, it becomes a part of his language, and is uttered with as little regard to its merits or peculiarities as he is wont to bestow upon the properties of the air in the act of breathing.

Language to him is an *instrument* for immediate and practical use, and not an *object* to be dissected and examined for other purposes. He employs it to make known his thoughts and feelings, his joys and sorrows, his wants and acquisitions; and, in the act of speaking, *these* and not *words* engross his attention. Place before him the elevated and classic language of the best writers, and he *reads* it in tones which at once betray his want of sympathy both with the thought and the expression. At the same time he expresses his own ideas, in his own language, with spirit, and with accuracy of emphasis and intonation. It is lan-

guage thus employed which we propose to improve in the following lessons.

To enlist the interest of children in their expressions, we must begin where their chief interests lie, namely, with objects, scenes, and pursuits which have occupied the wakeful hours of their busy lives, and especially with the vivid *mental pictures* which have arisen from them. Expressions derived from these are their own, and fall fresh from their lips instinct with thought and feeling.

It is the *use* of language which chiefly concerns the learner; its *principles* will gradually unfold themselves. He needs to associate his expressions directly with *mental processes*, so that he may pass, as in arithmetic, from process to principle and from principle to rule. He has not speculated upon language; it is of no consequence to him whether a word is a noun or an adverb, if by the *use* of it he can supply his wants. In fact, what are commonly called the *parts of speech* are by no means the first parts for him to consider. He needs to regard his expressions in their more vital relations to his thoughts. He thinks of *something*, and *tells what* he thinks. He readily sees that he has an expression for that *something*, and an expression for *what he tells of it*. As soon as he can distinguish these two parts, he has not only made a decided progress, but has prepared the way for other divisions, till at length he reaches the *parts of speech*. Why should there not be intellectual grammar as well as intellectual arithmetic?

It is believed that the matter contained in this little volume will be sufficient for the majority of pupils who take only the common English branches.

S. S. GREENE.

PROVIDENCE, November, 1867.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

THE following suggestions are offered for the benefit of those who may never have tried a course of oral instruction with a class of beginners:—

1. In Part I., an oral exercise, similar in spirit at least to the Models in the Appendix, should be given, to develop the main thought of each Lesson. It is the surest indication of success in these exercises that the thought is so clearly unfolded as to enable the children to express it in their own language. Next follows the Exercise in the text. For a few of the first Lessons this may be given immediately; at length it should be *assigned* for study and preparation. To prevent *routine*, and to keep the *intellectual processes fresh*, the teacher should make use of new examples, as indicated by the blanks. See Remark under 2, Lesson I.

2. The exercises for *correction* are introduced to *suggest* some of the various kinds of error against which the teacher is every day to contend. At first these errors should be corrected simply because they are bad English. Further on, they may be explained.

3. For a few of the first Lessons, the teacher will do well to perform all the *writing* upon the blackboard, both for the sake of example and to avoid crowding too many exercises upon the children at once. He need not, however, wait till Lesson XI. before setting the children to writing. Whenever this is done, he cannot be too exact in requiring the strictest attention to all the primary requisites for *good writing*,—just as in all their utterances he insists upon *correct speaking*.

4. Keeping in mind the main purpose of these Lessons, namely, the teaching both of *correct* and *improved* expression, and that in its immediate connection with thinking, the teacher will see how important it is to encourage the children to *speak* and *write* with the utmost freedom. Let them *narrate* any incidents

occurring in their daily experience, in their reading, or in their lessons. Let them learn to use paper and pen or slate and pencil almost as readily as they use the tongue. Let them answer questions for review on any of their studies in writing. Let them express their requests to the teacher in a neatly written form. Let them write a description of the most common occurrences,—not as a *task*, but as a pleasant way of talking silently.

The teacher should participate in these exercises, entering with interest into their thoughts and feelings, as the surest way to acquaint himself with their scanty resources of language, not forgetting that he who elevates the thoughts of children is sure to elevate their expressions.

5. In the processes of *pruning* and *correcting* let *all participate*, remembering that what may be regarded as *odious criticism* forms but a part of the work. One may suggest a better word, another a better combination, another a better arrangement, and still another a more refined and elevated turn of the thought, while the teacher acts as umpire, giving words of commendation and encouragement, and judiciously employing the assistance of the class in every criticism. A general sentiment in favor of a correct use of language should be encouraged throughout the whole school. It is well to put the defective and the improved expressions in contrast. For a time these contrasted expressions may be kept in a blank book by each of the class. They should often be put upon the blackboard.

6. As the learner advances, less and less minute oral instruction will be needed. Analogies and principles will gradually unfold themselves, so that he who has faithfully performed the work on the first fifty-three pages will be prepared to enter successfully upon a systematic study of grammar. Yet the work of correcting and improving should be kept up, and at all stages, in Part I. or Part II., every difficult passage should be illustrated by an oral lesson.

PART I.

ELEMENTARY COURSE.

EXPRESSION—OBJECTS, IDEAS, WORDS.

LESSON I.

1. These things which we can *see*, *feel*, *hear*, *smell*, or *taste* are **objects**.

See Suggestions, (pp. 5, 6); also Appendix, **Model I.** This pen is an object; you can *see* it. This watch is an object; you can *hear* it. This rose is an object; you can *smell* it.

2. Exercise.

1. Taking objects one by one from the desk, the teacher says, “What is this? And this? _____? _____? _____?”

The blanks, here and elsewhere, indicate a *continuance* of the exercise, at the discretion of the teacher, by multiplying examples. *Ready, apt, spontaneous, and varied* examples make the strongest impression. *Prompt and spirited* answers should be required.

2. Then, pointing to them promiscuously, but with increasing rapidity, the teacher says, “What is this?—this?—this? _____? _____? _____? _____?”

3. Mention any thing which you *now see* in this room, in that street, on yonder hill-side, _____, _____, _____.

4. Listen! What do you *hear* in this room? In the street? In _____? _____? _____? _____?

When convenient, make similar appeals to the other senses.

5. What do you call all these? Can you see any thing,

or do you know of any thing, that is not an **object**? What is an *object*?

6. Pronounce correctly and distinctly the names of these objects:—*house* (not haouse), *horse* (not hoss), *cow*, *elm*, *sword*, *saucer*, *window*, —, —, —, —, —.

3. Exercise.

1. Taking an orange and dividing it, the teacher calls attention to its parts,—*stem*, *peel*, *pulp*, *seeds*, &c. &c.

Observe how many pupils have no *suitable* name for these parts. For *pulp*, you will probably hear, *the soft part*, *the juicy part*, *the meat, that which you eat*, &c. &c. Whenever the children's vocabulary is found thus deficient, give them the word in common (not technical) use. The *real* aim of these exercises should be (no matter how *incidental* it may seem) to give scope and precision to their use of words.

2. In a similar manner name the parts of this slate, this knife, this book, —, —, —, —, —; that house, that tree, that carriage, —, —, —, —.

3. Correct the following expressions by putting a proper word in place of the phrases in Italics.

Father bought *one of them things that the shoemaker sews with*. *That top-piece of the window-sash* is broken. *Them—what do you call them? that they cut grass with* are made of steel.

How many *familiar* things there are for which children have no name! And how many words they *learn to repeat*, for which they have no corresponding object or idea!

The points requiring special care, thus far, are, on the part of the pupil, **close attention**,—a **single name** for every object and every part,—the **right name**, and not a *low* or *unsuitable* name,—**distinct pronunciation**, and **correct spelling**; on the part of the teacher, an earnest and a persevering effort to call forth from the children **improved modes of expression**, by **adding** to their vocabulary, by securing **precision** in the use of words, by **correcting** all faulty utterances in their conversations. See Directions, 4.

LESSON II.

4. When we **think** of objects, they **seem to be present** in the mind.

Here, the appeal is to be made directly to the child's *experience*. Can he now, in the school-room, call to mind, or seem to see, his home, the house, the grounds, the trees, the shrubs, the flower-beds, the walks, the fence, the gate, the front door, the faces of father, mother, brothers, sisters, —, —, —? Can he recall other objects familiar to him? He should be questioned just as if he and the teacher were viewing them together.

5. Exercise.

1. The teacher, holding up a watch, says, How many *really* see the watch? Then, concealing it, How many *now really* see it? How many *seem to see it?* particularly the crystal? the chain? the ring? the key? the face? the hands? —? —? —?

2. Can you now by *thinking* tell me the objects in your room at home?—in the garden? in the valley near your house? —? —? —? —?

3. *Think* of what you saw on the way to school, during a ride, —, —, —, —; and name the objects which you *then* saw, and *now* seem to see.

4. *Think* of the house nearest yours. What is the *color of it?* of the *blinds?* the *fence?* How many *stories* has the house? Name any *trees* or *shrubs* around it. How *wide* is the front gate? How *high* the fence? —? —? —? —?

What an opportunity is here afforded for cultivating the habit of careful observation! How much *vagueness* of idea and *indefiniteness* of expression will be readily detected and removed by a faithful and thorough inquiry after the conceptions which children are forming! *Objects* we have in common, but *ideas* lie concealed in the mind until expressed.

5. Pronounce, correctly, *powder*, *hearth*, *beard*, —, —, —, —, —.

Let the teacher give *any* words which the children are accustomed to mispronounce, and keep a list of them for frequent drills.

LESSON III.

6. That which we **seem to see** in the mind is an **idea**.

The formation of *clear* and *distinct* ideas lays the foundation for a *correct* and *appreciative* use of words. The remedy for defective ideas is to be found in asking searching questions (5, 4), making frequent appeals to objects, and insisting upon the use of the right words:—*objects*, *ideas*, *words* is the order. See Appendix, **Model 2**.

7. Exercise.

1. From the *idea* in your mind, can you give a description of your *kite*? *top*? *skates*? *sled*? —? —?

2. Give the names of the objects in order, as you pass from your house to school. Are you guided by the *real objects*, or by your *ideas* of them? Have you seen *Bunker Hill Monument*? What is your *idea* of it? of the Hudson? of a prairie? of a buffalo? of a schooner? —? —?

Questions like these will disclose hundreds of defects which nothing but *seeing* can remedy; they will show how powerless are mere words, and what can and must be done to fill the minds of children with just conceptions. When objects have not been *carefully observed*, the chain is no longer *objects*, *ideas*, *words*, but **words** and, probably, *vague*, *false*, *unfinished*, or *inadequate* (if any) **ideas**, with a conscious need of a fresh examination of the **objects** themselves.

LESSON IV.

8. To **express** our ideas, we use **words** as signs.

Signs, because ideas are wholly within the mind, and can be known to no other party except as they are indicated by signs.

Expressed, *pressed out*, as it were, from their hidden recesses in the mind.

9. Exercise.

1. What ideas come to your mind as I give you the word *ice*, *sun*, *bow*, *arrow*, *egg*, —, —, —, —, —?

Let the children give such descriptions of the objects as will show that their ideas of them are correct.

2. What ideas have you when I give you the words *threshold*, *lintel*, *helmet*, *frith*, *anemone*, —, —, —?

How many such words children are daily repeating! What ideas are associated with them? Perhaps *none at all*; perhaps *confused* and *uncertain* ideas; perhaps *erroneous* ones; perhaps the *object* and the *word* may both be known, but not their *connection* with each other. The *anemone* is familiar to most children; they have heard the name, they have seen the flower, but have never "known it by name."

3. Read *thoughtfully* these lines from Whittier, as if you were by the fireside, and tell what ideas the words in dark type call up.

The **house-dog**, on his **paws** **outspread**,
Laid to the fire his **drowsy** **head** ;
The **cat's** **dark** **silhouette** on the **wall**
A **couchant** **tiger's** seemed to **fall** ;
And, for the **winter** **fireside** meet,
Between the **andiron's** **straddling** **feet**,
The **mug** of **cider** **simmered** **slow**,
The **apples** **sputtered** in a **row** ;
And close at hand the **basket** **stood**,
With **nuts** from **brown** **October's** **wood**.

Can you describe the whole picture?

4. Read thus any descriptive piece in your Reader.

Objects impart *ideas*, but *words* express them. We may *use* objects, *think of* objects, or *speak of* objects. In reading or listening, *words* come

first. Are they associated with *clear* and *well-defined ideas*? Do they point us to corresponding outward *realities*,—the objects themselves? The true order here is *words, ideas, objects*.

5. Think of the objects which you *saw* in the *street*, in the *museum*, during your *walk* yesterday, and give a *word* for any of them. What are in the mind when *thinking* of them? What do we use in *speaking* of them? What does the word express?

Explain the connection between *objects, ideas, and words*.

LESSON V.

10. To express a thought, we **say something** of some **object**.

See Suggestions, (pp. 5, 6).

11. Exercise.

1. Of what **object** do we speak in each of these examples?

The star is twinkling.

The bird is flying.

The tree bends.

The horse is trotting.

Charles is a good boy.

The owl is screeching.

The apple is sour.

The moon is rising.

The duck is swimming.

_____ is hopping.

The sun _____.

_____ is delicious.

The horse _____.

_____.

_____.

_____.

Let the pupil fill these and as many more blanks as the teacher may deem necessary.

2. What is **said** of each of the foregoing objects?

3. Point out ten objects in this room, and say something of each.

4. Is any thing declared of the objects in these examples?

The cold winter—the flying fish—the mouse in the cheese—the hen on her nest—the boy running on the wall—the door swinging on the hinges. Say something of each object.

Here, as in many others of these exercises, the method of *contrast* will make the distinction clear. Thus, if “the rain is pattering” affirms something of the rain, do the words “the pattering rain” affirm anything?

LESSON VI.

12. The *words* used to express a thought form a **sentence**.

Thus, the words, “The sun is shining,” form a sentence, because they say something of the object, *sun*.

13. Exercise.

1. Name any five things which you know of a *lemon*, a *sponge*, a *dew-drop*, —, —, —, —, and use each with the name of the object,—first so as to say something, and then so as not to declare any thing.

2. Mention any actions performed by a *dog*, a *fish*, a *bee*, a *bird*, —, —, —, and use the words so as to say something of these objects. What do these examples form?

3. Fill these blanks so as to form sentences:—

The fox —. The cars —.

The grass —. The ice —.

The pen —.

LESSON VII.

14. In a sentence we may say **several things** of one object, or **one thing** of several objects.

Thus, we can say, The robin *sings*, *hops*, *flies*, and *perches*; or, The apples, pears, peaches, and melons *are ripe*.

15. Exercise.

1. Say one, two, or more things of this orange, that horse, that tree, _____, _____, _____, _____.

2. Tell the branches of the Mississippi, the months of the year, the days of the week, the names of the scholars in your class, the plants in the flower-bed, the books of the New Testament, _____, _____, _____, _____.

3. Say three things that belong to three objects at once; as, the horse, the dog, and the fox can _____, _____, _____.

LESSON VIII.

16. To *represent* the object, or what is said of it, we may use **one word**, or **several words**.

Thus, in the example, "Walter—sings," one word stands for the object, and one word for what is said. But in the example, "The knife which I hold in my hand—was made in England," eight words stand for the particular object, and four for what is said of it.

17. Exercise.

1. How many words stand for the object, and how many for what is said of it, in these examples?

Gertrude plays.

The sun shines.

Lead is heavy.

The smoke rises gracefully.

The old fence has fallen.

The oldest boy shall go first.

A strong south wind soon brought a heavy rain.

A rainbow in the morning is the shepherd's warning.

My voice may reach a friendly ear.

Robert came trembling into the presence of the officer.
The merry birds have left the bough.

The glow of sunset was already fading upon the border
of the sky.

2. Fill these blanks, and then tell what words represent
the object, and what words show what is said of it.

_____ mountain rose in sight. _____
_____ billows _____ were rolling high.
_____ boat was tossed _____.
Shall _____ class study _____?

See how much you can improve these examples:—They
don't know nothing 'bout it. You hadn't ought 'o do sech
things. Where be you goin' to? Be them fellers agoin'
with you? Is there many on 'em with you?

Persevere every day in correcting similar expressions.

LESSON IX.

18. When several words are taken together
(16), one of them is **principal**, and the others
limit it.

Thus, the word *trees* stands for any number of trees, but *ten trees*
stands for a limited number of trees. Here *trees* is the principal word,
and *ten* limits it, that is, prevents its applying to so great a number as
before. Thus, we have **trees**, **old trees**, **the two old trees** in that pas-
ture, this **tree** under which we sit.

19. Exercise.

1. Which may represent the greater number of ob-
jects,—*peaches*, or *five peaches*? *men*, or *wise men*? *clouds*,
or *those white clouds in the west*? *buttons*, or *the gilt buttons*
on that officer's coat? _____, _____? _____, _____?
_____ _____?

2. Mention the principal word and the limiting words in any of the foregoing examples.

Let the pupil see, by examples, that the limiting word, when *frequently* prefixed, often unites with the principal and forms *one* word; as, *penman*, *inkstand*, *handkerchief*, *headache*;—or, less permanently, with a hyphen between; as, *life-boat*, *freight-train*, *wood-saw*; and without permanence, but with the effect of one word, when *any* limiting words cluster around a principal; as, *the-boat-which-now-lies-at-the-pier*=*one boat*, named by *one expression*.

3. Tell the principal and the limiting part in these words:—

Horse-car, dog-tooth-violet, humming-bird, hen-house, eider-duck, egg-plant, snow-bird, fish-hawk, ground-squirrel.

4. Which of the following expressions should be united into one word, and which should not?

The-blue-sky; horse shoe; a-ride-in-the-country; pen man; house plant; tree box; the white bear of the polar regions; the-willow-in-the-meadow.

5. Tell the principal word in each of the foregoing examples; also, the limiting words.

6. Apply limiting words to the following subjects and predicates:—

_____ boys studied _____; soldiers marched _____; class will recite _____; flowers are growing _____; swans are swimming _____; wheat is growing _____.

7. Correct the following expressions:—A'n't there no more bread? Bring me them 'ere pinchers. There is five agoin' a'ready. See what them rabbits done! He is the best player I ever seen. It was me that done it. I am afeard of dogs. Us fellers did all the work, and you done nothin' at all.

LESSON X.

20. A sentence may be a **statement**, a **question**, a **command**, or an **exclamation**.

Thus:—

The child is crying. A statement.

Is the child crying? A question.

Do not cry, my child. A command.

O, how that child cries! . . . An exclamation.

21. Exercise.

1. Make a *statement* about any five objects which you now see.

2. Ask a *question* about five objects which you think of, or seem to see (6).

3. *Think* of a party of children, or a company of soldiers, and give five appropriate commands to them, as if you were with them.

4. Give three exclamations about something which you now see, hear, or think of.

5. Tell which of the following are statements, questions, commands, or exclamations:—

Is the old jail burnt?

Where shall we go?

You know the man.

Write just what you think.

O, how sweet that flower is!

What a mistake he made!

Who came in this morning?

Well, he must correct it.

The new house is finished.

Observe these capitals.

Come, boys, write your lesson.

Notice all the punctuation marks.

6. Change these examples from one kind to another, thus:—

The old jail is burnt. How was the old jail burnt?
Burn the old jail.

7. Correct and avoid such examples as these:—

Him and me is goin' to set together. He wants me bad. There a'n't no meat for you and I. Do you say, *sittin', readin', writin', comin'*? Have you heard any incorrect expressions to-day? Do any of you say, *ca-ow, sich, yender, ef, 'spose'n' you do it, wál, hisn, hern, yourn, theirn, them's em*?

LESSON XI.

22. A sentence may be **spoken** or **written**. In writing sentences, observe the following Cautions:—

I. Write just what you **really think**.

II. Write your examples **neatly** and **legibly**.

You are forming habits for life. Do not say, "I am in haste."

III. Be careful to **spell** every word correctly.

You may **speak** words, and not spell them; but when you **write**, you **must** spell them. Many an important position has been lost by a **few** misspelled words.

IV. Make use of **CAPITALS** for the *first* letter of every sentence,—of every particular name,—of names of the Deity,—of every line of poetry, and for the words *I* and *O*; and use small letters for the common words.

The teacher will illustrate these rules, when needed. Nothing betrays a want of culture more than negligence or ignorance in the use of capitals.

V. Place at the end of every *statement* or *command* a **period** (.),—of every *question*, an **interrogation point** (?),—of every *exclamation*, an **exclamation point** (!)

VI. Be careful to use a **comma** (,) to separate the parts of a series, as in the example (14),—to separate O, or the name of a person spoken to, from the other words, as in the third and fourth examples (20).

The teacher will illustrate by examples and give other rules when needed, insisting upon a **uniform observance** of them. Correct punctuation may be easily taught by drawing attention, one by one, to the constructions which require points.

VII. When an erroneous expression of your own is corrected, write the correction in full, and ever after avoid the error.

VIII. Never divide a syllable at the end of a line.

IX. If, by mistake, a word or a letter is omitted, write it above, with a *caret* (^) below.

Thus :—The boy has lost ^{his} hat.
 ^

23. Exercise.

1. Write, for examination and correction, ten sentences, and give all the varieties in (20), observing all the Cautions in (22).

Let these examples be examined by the teacher, and let the errors be employed as models for correction. The blackboard should be used freely.

2. Show what Cautions are violated in these examples, and write them all correctly :—

what shall i do.

the mouse is Eating the chease?

i saw henry in the garden?

Where do the clouds hide theirselves.

james John and david are going to boston

the cardinal points are north east south and west.

Come walter and bring your crocay set with you

The prime factors of thirty are two three and five

addition subtraction multiplication and division are the ground rules of rethmetic.

3. Write on your slates, giving the boundaries of Massachusetts, —, —, —; the capital towns or cities of the Middle States, —, —, —; the branches of the Amazon, —, —, —; the names of five Presidents of the United States, —, —, —, —, —.

4. Put the proper points after the following examples:
 The teacher has come—Are our lessons well prepared—
 A mountain is a great elevation of land—What is a cape—
 O, what a blunder that is—Write these examples carefully—Omit no punctuation marks—Whose slate is this—
 Why should you be so careful to write correctly *now*?—It
 is easier to learn the right way than to correct the wrong—
 How many words has Charles misspelled—

5. Which of the following examples are right, and which are wrong?—

i aint no coppersmith. I am no coppersmith.

that aint no fair. That is not fair.

'coz there aint none. Because there is none.

I seen him when he done it. I saw him when he did it.

i's cold. So be I. I am cold. So am I.

A most excellent practice, to free a class from these *perverted expressions*, is to require each member to collect in a little blank-book all those which are *actually* heard, and on the opposite page to write out neatly the proper expression. Let the examination of these books form a special exercise.

Remember that the *habit of speaking and writing correctly* is now to be established; and the rule is, Learn to speak correctly by **speaking correctly.**

LESSON XII.

24. The **subject** of a sentence represents that of which something is said.

Thus, the subject of the sentence, "Age should be respected," is *age*, because it represents that about which something is said.

25. The **predicate** of a sentence represents what is said of the subject.

Thus, in the sentence, "This fruit *is delicious*," *is delicious* is the predicate, because it represents what is said of *fruit*.

26. Exercise.

1. Which are the subjects, and which the predicates, in the following examples?—

The primrose is blooming. How cold the water is! The child is asleep. Spain is in the southwest of Europe. We shall study history. Who will teach us? How long shall we study Geography? Return to your seat. Where is the next lesson?

2. Say something of this *globe*, this *map*, —, —, —, and tell what the predicates are.

3. Ask something about this *watch*, this *belt*, this *portfolio*, —, —, —, —; —, and give the predicates.

4. Put together the words in the following examples so as to form any of the kinds of sentence in (20), and write them, observing the Cautions in (22). Add any words, if needed.

The delicious fruit—my pleasant home—the olive growing on the hill—the white bleating lamb—the celery gardener in raising successful—these examples written correctly. Look out capitals for in them writing.

5. Correct these examples in all respects:—

the winds are bloing—how old is arther—i knowd who done this—what for did you do it—my lesson is wrote—james hasn't got no pencil—i will lend him this 'ere one.

6. Put subjects in place of the following blanks:—

— is sinking.

Is — here?

— is reading.

Where is —?

— are coming.

— is drumming?

_____ is frisking. How long is this _____?
 _____ is beautiful. When will _____ come?
 How sad _____ looks! Study _____ the rules.
 What cheerless nights _____ had!

7. Put predicates in place of the following blanks:—

The clock _____.	The sled _____.
The ducks _____.	The post _____.
My hat _____.	Your belt _____.
Where _____ Jonas _____?	The moon _____.
Who _____ the books?	_____ [thou], Charles, to me.
How _____ he _____?	_____ your lessons, boys!
Why _____ you _____?	What has she _____!
How _____ he _____?	He _____ my brother.

Let these exercises be written and examined.

LESSON XIII.

27. When a sentence is separated into its parts, it is **analyzed**.

The sentence, "The winter is passing," is analyzed thus:—

Winter . . . is the subject; it represents that of which something is affirmed.

is passing . . is the predicate; it represents that which is affirmed of the subject.

It may be represented in its parts to the eye thus:—*The winter—is passing.*

28. Exercise.

1. Analyze the following examples:—

The peacock has beautiful feathers. The bridge was destroyed. His slate is covered. What a storm this is! When shall we write? Who comes yonder?

In this analysis no attention should be paid to the modifying words; say, *the peacock* is the subject, and *has beautiful feathers* is the predicate: it shows what is said.

2. Analyze the different kinds of sentences (**20**) which you form about yonder sunset, that cloud, those boats, yonder —, —, —, —.

Here encourage the children to express their thoughts *freely* and *naturally*.

3. In the following examples, which expressions seem to you best?

Be you agoin' to be to hum to-morrow? Are you going to be at home to-morrow? Shall you be at home to-morrow? Are you to be at home to-morrow?

He ha'n't fetched no slate to school. He has fetched no slate to school. He has brought no slate to school. He has not brought any slate to school.

He's a gettin' the lesson that he hadn't ought to. He is getting the lesson that he had not ought to. He is learning the wrong lesson. He is getting the lesson he ought not to. He is getting the lesson he ought not to get. He is getting the wrong lesson.

I ha'n't got no grammar book. I have no grammar book. I have no grammar. I have not got any grammar. I am not the owner of a grammar. I haven't any grammar. I do not possess a grammar book. I haven't no grammar.

It is an excellent practice to draw from a class a variety of expressions, and then discuss the merits or demerits of each, always pronouncing upon that which is best.

4. Mention any incorrect expressions which you have noticed to-day.

This exercise should be encouraged daily. A great change in the modes of expression will soon be observed, if the teacher will persevere and press earnestly the work of correction.

5. Try to improve these expressions:—

Wher'bouts is our g'oography lesson? Can I borry a slate-pencil? Them pens is poor. She is tryin' to do them sums, but she hadn't ought to study fractions for a long spell to come.

CLASSES AND USES OF WORDS.

LESSON XIV.

29. The *name* of an object (an object-word) is a **noun**.

Here the point is to distinguish clearly between the *object* itself (1) and its name (8). Thus, this *pen* is an object; but the word *pen*, which I write on the board, is only an *object-word*, or *name* for the object. See Appendix. Objects of *thought* should not be introduced here.

30. Exercise.

1. What do you call these words?—*lion, tiger, goat, sun, moon, house, Solomon, Peter, _____, _____, _____, _____*.

2. *Think* of the objects in your room at home, and write the names of ten of them (see 7) on your slates. What do you call these names?

3. *Think* of what these words represent, and tell which stand for objects:—*hen, clearly, house, into, swimming, rat, of, dog, good, old, snow*.

4. Tell the nouns in these examples:—

Frederick is drinking water. Has Charles caught a trout? O, how bright the lightning is! When did the boy bring that basket? Henry came from Philadelphia in the cars.

5. Write five sentences, and select the nouns (see 22).

LESSON XV.

31. The noun may be used as the **subject** (24).

Thus, in the sentence, “Mary is playing,” *Mary* is the name of the object of which something is said; it is a *noun*, and is the *subject* (24) of the sentence.

32. Exercise.

1. What nouns in these examples are subjects?

Jane walked to the city. Where will the sun rise? The old man remained in his carriage. The wind has broken the branches of the trees. The Indians live in huts. Rabbits burrow in the ground.

2. Write in full the answers to five questions in your Geography lesson, and tell what nouns are used as subjects.

3. Correct the following examples (see **27**), and point out the nouns used as subjects.

the pitcher was broke—no rivers a'n't flowing into it—there a'n't no fun in that play—george done all this mischief—them boys is whispering—where be them pencils—Be the class goin' to take all them questions—the girl didn't do nothing—the boys didn't know nothing about it.

LESSON XVI.

33. The noun, with “is” or “are,” may form the **predicate** (**30**).

Thus, in the sentence, “Boston is the *capital*,” *capital*, with “is” preceding it, forms the predicate of the sentence. The pupil should see that a noun without “is” or “are” cannot form a predicate; as, “Boston, the *capital*.” The learner will see, hereafter, that any form of “to be” is used to form the predicate.

34. Exercise.

1. Point out the nouns used with “is” or “are” to form the following predicates:—

The earth is a globe. Venus is a planet. The stars are suns. The squirrel is a quadruped. The pinks are _____. The shad is a _____. Alexander is a _____.

2. Correct these examples, and point out the nouns used as predicates:—

Them's the books—that 'ere is my cap—be we good boys—bes you a German—am he a traitor.

Let the pupil observe that "is" is used when the subject means but one, and "are" when it means more than one.

LESSON XVII.

35. A noun may be used without "is" or "are," to **limit** (18) another noun; but the words do not form a sentence.

Thus, *queen* would mean any queen; but *Queen Victoria* means a particular queen (see 18, 1). Here *Victoria* is used to limit *queen*, but nothing is affirmed.

36. Exercise.

1. Point out the limiting nouns in these examples:—

The planet Venus is morning star. The ship Nautilus has left the harbor. Lincoln, the President, was assassinated. David, the Psalmist, was the poet-king. The river Nile overflows its banks.

Caution.—When the limiting noun is itself limited, place a comma before the united words; thus, Peter, the hermit.

2. Point out the subject or the predicate noun in the foregoing examples.

3. Fill these blanks with limiting nouns:—

My dog —— follows me.

His brother —— went into the country.

The river —— empties into the Mediterranean.

The poet —— wrote Paradise Lost.

4. Correct these examples in all respects:—

Napoleon the emperor of the french is a powerful monarch—the mississippi the father of waters drains a vast basin—correct expression a most important study is sadly neglected—Columbus the discoverer of america was carried home in chains.

The teacher will readily see whether these exercises have fixed in the minds of the pupils the three uses of the noun, as *subject*, *predicate*, and *limiting noun*. If not, more examples should be *given* to them, and *required* of them.

5. Write five examples, using three nouns in each,— one as *subject*, one with “is” or “are” to form the *predicate*, and one to *limit* the subject; thus, *My brother James* is a *student*.

LESSON XVIII.

37. The **pronoun** (for-noun) may be put for the noun, in its different uses.

Thus, instead of “*William* is at home,” we may say, *He* is at home; instead of “*That* is *Julia*,” we may say, *That* is *she*; instead of “*The storm* has abated,” *It* has abated. *He*, *she* and, *it*, are *pronouns*, used instead of the nouns. The particular uses of the pronouns will be considered hereafter.

38. Exercise.

1. Point out the pronouns in these examples; tell whether they are used as subject or predicate:—

He has come. Where is *he*? I am *he*. She is studying. It is cold. They will return.

2. Put pronouns in place of the following nouns:—

George reads well. Where has Henry been? It is my cousin. Sarah has found her crewel. The boys are at play. When will the stars shine?

LESSON XIX.

39. A word added to a noun to express a *quality* of the object named is a **quality-word**, or **adjective**.

Thus, in the expression “*sweet apple*,” *sweet* stands for a quality of the apple. Here make a clear distinction, by an oral exercise, between an object and its qualities, and between a quality and the *quality-word*. Adjectives used merely to *limit* nouns should come in gradually.

40. Exercise.

1. What qualities do you find in this *orange* by *looking* at it? by *feeling* it? by *tasting* it? by *smelling* it? In the same way, what qualities do you find in this *sponge*? this *rose*? _____?

2. Do these several *words* name the objects, or express what you find *in* the objects? What do you call them?

3. Name any objects which have the quality *white*, *smooth*, *juicy*, *fresh*, *round*, _____, _____, _____.

4. Name any of the qualities of *water*, *milk*, an *apple*, a *horse*, _____, _____, _____, _____, and write sentences, as in (15).

5. What do you call these words?—*small*; *old*; *young*; *ripe*; *large*; *rough*; _____; _____; _____; _____.

6. Point out the adjectives in these examples:—Sweet apples,—ripe melons,—sour grapes,—new houses,—cool winds,—clear skies. To what kind of words are they added?

LESSON XX.

41. The adjective may be used with “*is*” or “*are*,” to form the **predicate** (25).

Thus, we may use the adjective *sour* with “*is*,” and say, “The apple *is sour*.”

42. Exercise.

1. What adjectives do you use to name the qualities of a *book*? a *rose*? a *ball*? _____? _____? _____?
2. Form predicates with them by using them with “is.”
3. Write five nouns, and predicate four qualities of each (**15**), (**22**).
4. Correct the following examples:—

fanny writes good—the sun sat in a cloud—i seen him when he done it—be I rite or rong—how fur does the lesson go—how many sums have we got to git—sarah is in her wrong seat—can i go to the fire.

5. How many expressions of your own have you improved? How many have you detected in others?

LESSON XXI.

43. The adjective without “is” or “are” may be added to a noun to **limit** its application; but the words do not form a sentence.

Thus, *geese* names all the birds of this kind, but *wild geese* names only a part of them; *wild* is added to *geese*, and limits its application to one class of geese.

44. Exercise.

1. Point out the adjectives used to limit the nouns in the following examples:—

Rough boards—old rails—large gains—sweet peas—clean hands—red ink—dark cloth.

Let the pupil see that other words besides *quality-words* may be added to nouns to *limit* their applications,—such as *two, three, four, this, that*, and others. These, also, are called adjectives.

2. Use two or more adjectives,—one to *limit* the subject, and one with “is,” &c., to show *what is said* (**36**, 5).

3. Name any qualities of *gold*, *lead*, *ice*, ——, ——, and affirm them, as in (14).

LESSON XXII.

45. A word which, of itself, **affirms** or **says** something of an object, is a **verb**.

Thus, "is" is a verb in "Ice *is* cold;" because it *affirms* something of *ice*. Here "is" *affirms*, and *cold* expresses *what* it affirms.

46. A word which stands for an *action* (action-word) is a **verb**, when of itself it can *affirm* the action; a **participle**, when of itself it can only express the action, without affirming it.

Thus, in the example "The dog *runs*," "*runs*" is a verb, because it both *stands for* the action and *affirms* it; but in the example "The dog *running*," "*running*" is not a verb, but a participle, because it only stands for the action; it does not affirm it. By putting in "is," we have a word to *affirm* and another to *express* the action,—"The dog *is running*."

This distinction must be made clear to the child by examples. He can readily see that a participle alone can never *say* any thing of an object. Let the pupil see that no other word than the *verb* can of itself form the predicate. Try a *noun*, a *pronoun*, an *adjective*, or a *participle*.

47. Exercise.

1. Point out the verbs and the participles in the following examples:—

The sun shines. The horse *is* running. The birds *are* flying. The dog barks. The snow melts. The bells *are* ringing. The winds blow. The rising sun. The sun *is* rising. The falling leaves. The leaves fall. The stars _____. The lily _____. The soldier wounded in the hand. The soldier *is* wounded in the hand.

2. Mention any actions of the *robin*, the *fox*, the *bee*,

—, —, —, and affirm them as in (14), using one word for each.

3. Express the actions by using the participle. Affirm each by using "is" or "are."

LESSON XXIII.

48. The verb either is the **predicate**, or is used in forming it.

Thus, when we say, "He *reads*," we use the verb *reads* alone as the predicate; but when we say, "The plums *are ripe*," we use the verb *are* to affirm, and *ripe* to show *what* is affirmed. Neither *ripe* alone, nor *are* alone, can form the predicate.

49. Exercise.

1. In the following examples, point out those in which the verb alone forms the predicate, and those in which the verb and another word are used.

The boy swims.

The berries are sweet.

The man is reading.

The clouds rise over the hills.

The summer is warm.

The rising sun is bright.

Those men are soldiers.

That ship glides over the waves.

That boat is a propeller.

LESSON XXIV.

50. The participle may be used like the *adjective* (41, 43).

Thus, we may say, "The *rising* sun gilds the mountain-top," or, "The sun is *rising* in the east."

51. Exercise.

1. In the following sentences, point out the participles used to limit, and those used in the predicate:—

The sun is rising.

The sparkling stream is pouring over the precipice.

The beautiful boat is sailing down the stream.

The pouring rain falls in torrents.

The roaring lion frightens the hunters.

The moving mass is stretching over the ground.

2. In these examples, tell whether the predicate is a verb alone, a verb and a participle, a verb and an adjective, or a verb and a noun:—

The shower is coming.

O, how it rains!

The earth is wet.

The dew is sparkling on the grass.

The hyena is an offensive animal.

The gold is melting.

3. Put upon the blackboard any errors which you have heard to-day.

LESSON XXV.

52. A word used to limit the meaning of a *verb, adjective, participle, or adverb*, is an **adverb**.

Thus, in “The horse walks *slowly* ;” “*a very ripe peach* ;” “the storm approaching *gradually* ;” “rising *too quickly* ;” *slowly, very, gradually, and too quickly* are adverbs.

Let this only use of the adverb be fully illustrated by drill exercise. See Suggestions, (pp. 5, 6); also, Appendix

53. Exercise.

1. Point out the adverbs in these examples:—

Charles writes *carefully*.

The weather is *very cold*.

The dog barks most furiously.
 Henry entered too abruptly.
 The man is sitting there.
 The orator spoke eloquently.
 The word is too difficult.

2. Analyze the foregoing examples, and show how the predicates are limited.

3. Tell the verbs, adjectives, nouns, pronouns, and adverbs in these examples :—

John is at the door.
 The daylight is gone.
 The old tree is badly broken.
 He is riding in a carriage.
 How slowly the snail crawls !
 The melons are ripe.
 Where is my knife ?

LESSON XXVI.

54. A word used to show a *relation* (relation-word) is a **preposition**.

Thus, in the expression, "The book is *on* the table," *on* is a preposition. Illustrate this, as in the Appendix, "Method for Lesson XIV."

55. Exercise.

1. Insert the proper prepositions in the following blanks, and tell what each preposition shows the relation of :—

Edgar walked ——— the garden.

The woodpecker ran ——— the trunk of the tree.

I rode ——— Providence ——— Boston ——— the cars.

Emma practised ——— diligence ——— two hours.

The dews ——— the morning glitter ——— the rays
—— the sun.

He spoke ——— different subjects.

2. Write sentences containing the prepositions down,
among, upon, between, over, against, by, under, ——,
——, ——, ——, ——.

3. Correct the following examples in all respects :—

there's five agoin' already—aint it fun—ther aint nothin' at all—i left my pen to hum—them is the fellers—
be you goin jist now—us fellers done all the work—sich
doin's mustn't be in these grounds—i disremember them
things you told me—have you got your seeds we have got
ourn.

LESSON XXVII.

56. A word used to *connect* (connecting-word)
is a **conjunction**.

Illustrate this by taking two objects in the hand, and show that we
connect the *names* in speaking when we connect the things in thinking
of them. Thus, this **pen and pencil**.

57. A word used to express *feeling* or *emotion*
(emotion-word) is an **interjection**.

Thus, in "*Alas!* he is gone," *alas* is an interjection.

58. Exercise.

1. Point out the conjunctions in these examples, and
tell what they connect :—

The teacher and the scholars are present.

Washington always decided wisely and justly.

The pen or the ink is poor.

Gertrude has neither father nor mother.

I have not a slate, but a book.

Arnold is not angry, but sad.

2. Point out the interjections in the following examples:—

What! is it possible?

Alas! alas! my axe is lost.

Adieu! my native land, adieu!

Ah me! I fear the worst.

Hail! hail to thee, great chief!

O thoughts ineffable! O visions blest!

3. Write sentences containing the conjunctions and interjections,—but, and, if, than, because; ah, hurra, oh, alas.

4. Write sentences containing—

(1.) A noun, a verb, an adverb.

(2.) A noun, a verb, a participle.

(3.) A noun, a verb, and two adjectives connected by a conjunction.

(4.) An adjective used in the predicate.

(5.) A preposition and a participle.

(6.) One noun joined to another to limit it.

(7.) An adjective used to limit, and a noun in the predicate.

(8.) A noun to limit, and an adjective in the predicate.

Let this kind of exercise be continued, if needed.

SUBDIVISIONS, PROPERTIES, AND CHANGES OF WORDS.

LESSON XXVIII.

59. A noun which applies to an *individual* object is a **proper noun**.

60. A noun which may apply to each individual of a class of objects is a **common noun**.

In these two paragraphs, the point is to show that an object may have a name as one of a class, or, in case of important objects, a name of *its own*. Thus, *boy* is a name applying to any boy, but *Herbert* denotes some particular boy.

61. Exercise.

1. Fill these blanks, the first with a common noun, the second with a proper :—

A _____ was fought in _____.

What _____ flows into the _____?

A _____ sailed across the _____.

2. Fill these blanks, and tell what kind of nouns you insert :—

_____ is walking with his _____.

The _____ commanded the _____ to march to _____.

_____ is situated on an _____.

3. Write five sentences, each containing a proper noun.

4. Correct these examples :—

give me my book and i will give you yourn—hisn aint right—mighty little have I got—shet the door and set down—o what a blunder that is—have you been chawing gum—it's good ef you eat it unbeknown.

LESSON XXIX.

62. A noun or a pronoun usually changes its form when it represents more than one object.

63. When a noun or a pronoun represents a *single* object, it is of the **singular number**.

64. When a noun or a pronoun represents more than one object, it is of the **plural number**.

Thus, in "*He gave me an apple*," *he*, *me*, and *apple* are of the *singular* number; but in "*They gave us some apples*," *they*, *us*, and *apples* are of the *plural* number. Illustrate this distinction by means of objects, as in Appendix (60).

65. Exercise.

1. Write the plural of the following nouns:—

Paper, boy, girl, rose, house, thrush, marsh, box, bush, table, church, piano, knife, wife, bath, thief, fife, five, sheaf, fly, cry, glory, ally.

2. Write three sentences containing each a plural noun, and three containing each a singular noun.

LESSON XXX.

66. In speaking, there are three parties, called **persons**,—the **speaker**, the **hearer**, and the **object spoken of**.

Thus, when I say to you, "*Herbert is writing*," *I* denotes the *speaker*, *you* the *hearer*, and *Herbert* the *object spoken of*.

67. The **first person** represents the *speaker*.

68. The **second person** represents the *hearer*.

69. The **third person** represents the object *spoken of*.

Thus, in the example above, *I* is of the first person, *you* of the second, and *Herbert* of the third.

An object *must be spoken of* (10) to be represented at all in the sentence. Hence the first and the second person would never appear in the sentence unless they were in some way *spoken of*. In the first person, the object *spoken of* is the speaker; in the second, the hearer; in the third, a third party, differing from both.

70. Exercise.

1. Is the speaker or the hearer represented in the following examples? Is there any thing in them to *show* who the speaker or the hearer is? What are the objects *spoken of*? Must there be a speaker for each?

James is coming. Time is money. Honesty is the best policy. The truth will triumph.

2. Is the speaker or the hearer represented in the following examples? What represents the objects *spoken of*? Tell what two parties (66) are represented in each. What party is not represented?

I am writing. Are you reading? We shall be present. I will certainly go. Thou art beside thyself.

3. Among the following examples, tell those in which the speaker or the hearer is represented. Are there any in which the object *spoken of* is not represented? Are there any in which the speaker or the hearer is not represented? Are there any in which more than one object is spoken of?

The kite is flying. You may see it. Where is William? Have you seen the eclipse? I have bought you a book. Jane told you to give me her pen.

LESSON XXXI.

71. To represent the three persons, we employ **personal pronouns**.

By examples, the teacher will readily show that the *third person* may first be represented by *name*; then, to avoid *repetition*, by the pronouns *he*, *she*, or *it*;—that the *first* and the *second* person are invariably represented by pronouns, to avoid the *ambiguity* which would ensue from the use of the noun. Thus, if George, intending to speak of himself, should say, “George is playing croquet,” the hearer would think he meant some other George. So of the second person.

72. Exercise.

1. Learn the following list of personal pronouns:—

SIMPLE.*Singular.**Plural.***First Person . . . I.****We.****Second Person . . Thou.****Ye or you.****Third Person . . He, she, or it.****They.****COMPOUND.***Singular.**Plural.***First Person . . Myself.****Ourselves.****Second Person . . Thyself, yourself.****Yourselves.****Third Person . . Himself, herself,
itself.****Themselves.**

2. How should the object *spoken of* be represented in the following examples?—

Stephen bought a top, carried the top home, and played with the top. Sarah invited Ellen to a picnic, and requested Ellen to invite Ellen's cousin. Henry found a question which Henry could not answer.

Should it be represented by the pronoun in every instance?

3. How should William speak of himself in these examples?—

Give William (meaning himself) a slate. William attends the grammar-school. William is studying arithmetic.

Why should a pronoun be used in every instance? Which of the three parties (**66**) does William represent? Is he spoken of? By whom?

4. How should Alice be represented as the one spoken to in these examples?—

Alice may bring Alice's pen and ink, and Alice may write a letter to Alice's sister.

5. Fill the blanks in the following examples with the proper pronouns, and tell why the same Walter is represented by *different* pronouns:—

“Come,” says Walter, “—— am ready for a ride.”

Walter, when are ——— coming home?

Walter is very ingenious; ——— has made a little printing-press.

Draw from the pupil the conclusion that the pronoun itself must be changed when the personal relation of the *same* individual changes.

5. Give pronouns to represent these nouns:—

(1.) As *object spoken of*:—house, houses; tree, trees; boy, boys; lady, ladies; duck, ducks; church, churches; bear, bears; man, men; ———, ———; ———, ———; ———, ———.

Why does the pronoun change its *form* to represent the words between the semicolons? In what respect does it *agree* with the nouns?

(2.) As *party speaking*, or *spoken to*:—Alfred, Alfred and Silas; Jonas, Jonas and Emory; Isaac, Isaac, Nathan, and David; ———, ———, ———, ———.

Let the pupil draw the conclusion, from these changes, as to the *agreement* of the pronoun with the noun.

6. In the following examples, let the subject in each become first, second, or third person, singular or plural number, and mark the changes in the verb :—

Philip is flying a kite. Do you see the old farm-house? I am very fond of mignonette. Carroll is an excellent carpenter; he is constantly employed. Hubert is gathering pond-lilies; how fragrant they are!

Let the pupil observe that these changes follow the changes in *person* and *number* of the subject.

LESSON XXXII.

73. A different pronoun must be used when the object spoken of is **male**, **female**, or **neither** male nor female.

Thus, for "Henry rides," we have, *he* rides; for "Mary sings," *she* sings; for "Steel is hard," *it* is hard.

74. The distinction of nouns or pronouns in regard to sex is called **gender**.

75. The **masculine gender** denotes a *male*.

76. The **feminine gender** denotes a *female*.

77. The **neuter gender** denotes an object neither male nor female.

78. Exercise.

1. In the following examples point out the nouns and the pronouns, and tell the person, the number, and the gender of each :—

Pigeons fly in such numerous flocks that they often break down the branches of the trees when they alight.

Virginia sketches beautifully; she studies nature.

John is so lame that he is obliged to ride to school.

That engraving is very fine ; I intend to buy it.
 Have you concluded to purchase that house ?
 We must visit Niagara Falls.

2. Write sentences containing the following pronouns :—
 I, you, he, she, it, we, they, and ye.

3. Represent the following nouns by appropriate pronouns :— Arnold, Cornelia, grandfather, hens, chicken, chisel, parents.

Let the pupil observe the *agreement* of the pronoun with its noun in *person, number, and gender.*

LESSON XXXIII.

79. **Different forms** of the same pronoun are used to represent the noun in its **several relations** to other words.

Thus, put a pronoun for *Henry* in these examples,—“*Henry* is reading;” “I saw *Henry*;” “*Henry's* cap is torn;”—and you have, “**He** is reading;” “I saw **him**;” “**His** cap is torn.”

80. A noun or a pronoun may have one of three different relations, called **case.**

81. The **nominative case** is used as the subject, and answers the question *who?* or *what?*

82. The **possessive case** is used before another noun to limit it by denoting possession.

83. The **objective case** is used after a verb or a preposition, and answers the question *whom?* or *what?*

Thus, in the example, “Jane saw *Henry's* kite,” *Jane* is in the nominative case, it answers the question, *Who saw?* *kite* is in the objective case, it shows *what she saw*; *Henry's* is in the possessive case, it shows *whose kite.*

84. Exercise.

1. Give the case of the following nouns:—

Harriet is in her garden.

Jungles abound in Hindostan.

Merton's dog has bitten a child.

I bought the pencils at Clark's.

I have read Bancroft's History of the United States.

2. Put pronouns in place of the following nouns in Italics, and thus determine the case by the form of the pronoun:—

Henry guided *Arthur*. *Murphy's* dog is dead. *Gifford* bought a *cow*. The *hen* laid ten eggs.

LESSON XXXIV.

85. A verb which takes an objective case immediately after it is a **transitive verb**.

Thus, in "I found — in the orchard," we cannot use *he*, *she*, or *his*, but must use *him*, *her*, or *it*, to fill the blank. These are in the objective case; and so would be any word that did not change its form.

86. A verb which does not take an objective immediately after it is an **intransitive verb**.

Thus, in the examples, "The stars set —;" "The trees bend —," no word is needed to complete the meaning.

87. Exercise.

1. Point out the transitive and the intransitive verbs in the following examples:—

The owl sits upon the tree.

Gertrude has finished her picture.

The pears dropped from the tree.

The sun shines upon the water.

The fire has scorched the grass.
The robin is feeding her young.

LESSON XXXV.

88. Every transitive verb requires two parties,—the **actor**, and the **receiver** of the action.

Thus, in “John struck William,” John is the *actor*, and William the *receiver* of the action.

89. When the actor is the subject of the sentence, the verb is in the **active voice**.

Thus, *struck*, above, is in the active voice, because the *actor* is the subject.

90. When the receiver of the action is the subject, the verb is in the **passive voice**.

Thus, in “William *was struck* by John,” *was struck* is in the passive voice, because the receiver of the action is the subject.

91. Exercise.

1. Point out the verbs in the active and in the passive voice in these examples:—

The governor pardoned the prisoner.

The ship was wrecked upon the rocks.

The fish was caught with a hook.

The dog pursued the fox.

The branches were broken by the wind.

2. Change the sentences in these examples by putting the passive for the active voice.

The committee visited the school.

The policeman caught the robber.

The sun melted the snow.

The wind broke the branches of the trees.

The boy carried berries to market.

LESSON XXXVI.

92. An event may be **real**, and **actually** happen, or it may be **thought of** and be **spoken of as if** it had happened.

Thus, if I say, "The boy *is* playing," or, "Is the boy playing?" you understand me to say something or ask for something that is *real* or *actual*; but if I say, "The boy *can* play," or, "Can the boy play?" it does not mean that the boy is *actually* playing,—(he may be asleep): I merely *think* of his playing.

93. When a verb asserts or inquires for an action as *actually* taking place, it is in the **indicative mode**.

Thus, "The wind *is blowing*," asserts a thing that really is taking place.

94. When a verb asserts or inquires for an action which merely *may*, *can*, or *must* take place, it is in the **potential mode**.

Thus, when I say, "*I may go*," it does not mean that I really am going.

95. When a verb expresses a condition for another event and implies doubt, it is in the **subjunctive mode**.

Thus, in "Jane *will come*, if it *do not rain*," the coming of Jane depends upon whether or not it will rain at the time.

96. When a verb asserts a command or an entreaty, it is in the **imperative mode**.

Thus, when I say, "Bring me the chair," I command something.

97. A verb with **to** placed before it, *expressing* action but not *asserting* it, is called **the infinitive**.

Thus, *to read*, *to have written*, *to walk*, are infinitives.

98. Exercise.

1. Fill these blanks with verbs, and tell the mode of each:—

The rain ——— falling.

The wind ——— ——— from the east.

Arthur ——— ——— Geography.

The dog ——— barking at the cat.

We will go to Niagara if we ——— ——— home.

2. Tell the mode of the following verbs:—

The boy may catch a fish.

The tree is broken by the wind.

Come, Edmund, play with me.

I will go if you will explain my lesson.

The leaves begin to fall.

LESSON XXXVII.

99. An action is said to be,—

Progressive, when it is represented as *going on*.

Thus, “The boys *are playing*,” means that they are *actually* playing, but have not finished yet.

Completed or perfect, when it is represented as *finished*.

Thus, “The boys *have played*,” means that they are not now *actually* playing, but have *finished* their play.

Indefinite, when it merely *supposes* a *going on* and a *finishing*, but does not distinctly state it.

Thus, “The boys *played*,” means that they had a *play*, which must have *begun*, *gone on*, and *ended*.

100. When the verb by its form represents

the action as taking place *at the time of speaking*, it is in the **present tense**.

Thus, "The boys *are playing*" (prog.). "The boys *have played*" (completed). "The boys *play*" (indef.).

101. When the verb by some change of form places the action *before the time of speaking*, it is in the **past tense**.

Thus, "The boys *were playing*" (prog.). "The boys *had played*" (completed). "The boys *played*" (indef.).

102. When the verb by some change of form places the action *after the time of speaking*, it is in the **future tense**.

Thus, "The boys *will be playing*" (prog.). "The boys *will have played*" (perfect). "The boys *will play* (indef.)."

103. In forming the tenses which denote *progressive action*, the verb **be** (*is, am, are, was, will be, &c.*) unites with the **participle** ending in **ing**, which represents an unfinished act.

Thus, "I *am sitting*;" "He *was walking*;" "They *are running*."

104. In forming the tenses denoting **completed** action, the verb **have** (*have, had, will have*) unites with the **participle** (usually ending in **ed**) which stands for a finished act.

Thus, "They *have eaten*;" "They *will have written*."

105. When the *past indef.* (99) and the **participle** for a finished act are formed by adding **ed** to the present tense, the verb is **regular**.

Thus, *Love* gives us, by dropping the final *e*, *lov*; then, by adding *ed*, *lov-ed*, and the participle is the same.

106. When the past tense and the participle for a finished act are not formed by adding **ed** to the present, the verb is **irregular**.

Thus, we have—present, *bring*; past *indef.* *brought*; participle for finished act, *brought*.

107. Exercise.

1. Give the *progressive* (98) state or form of,—blow, drive, reign, fly, speak, —, —, —, —, —, —.

2. Give the *perfect* or form for completed action to the same verbs.

3. Give the common or form for indefinite action to the same.

Give each in the present, the past, the future.

4. Write upon the slate the present, past, and future of the verbs dive, rain, climb, hop, —, —, —, —.

5. Give the present tense, the past tense, and the perfect tense to the following: thus,—

Present Tense.

Write,

Play,

Sing,

Invite,

Love,

Read,

Enjoy,

Past Tense.

Wrote,

—

—

—

—

—

—

Perfect Tense.

Have written.

— —.

— —.

— —.

— —.

— —.

— —.

6. Determine the past tense and past participle of the following verbs, and tell which are regular and which are irregular:—sell, wear, is producing, is said, fail, has given, play, prepare.

LESSON XXXVIII.

108. In speaking of two or more *objects, actions, or conditions*, we often **compare** them by means of an adjective or an adverb.

Thus, when I say, "This pencil is **longer** than that," it shows that I have compared two pencils; when I say, "The eagle **flies swifter** than the dove," I compare two actions.

109. The adjective or the adverb, by its form, or by some change of form, expresses the **degree of comparison**.

110. There are three degrees of comparison:—

(1.) The **positive degree**, used when there is no comparison, or when two objects possess **equal degrees**.

Thus, when I say, "This tree is *tall*; that tree is *tall*," I do not compare them; but when I say, "This tree is **as tall as** that," I compare them, and show that they have equal degrees of height.

(2.) The **comparative degree**, used when **two** objects, actions, or conditions possessing **unequal degrees** are compared.

Thus, "This key is *heavier* than that;" "The weather is *warmer* in autumn than in spring."

(3.) The **superlative degree**, used when **one** object, action, or condition is compared with two or more of the same kind.

Thus, "The sun is the **brightest** of all the heavenly bodies."

Let the attention of the pupil be directed to the *manner of forming* these degrees, by adding *er, est, and the use of more, most, less, least..*

111. Exercise.

1. Give the degree of each of the following adjectives:—
 Sweet, older, merry, brightest, more unhappy, least difficult, peaceful, upright.

2. Compare these adverbs:—swift, badly, ill, well, finely.

3. Fill the following blanks with adjectives, and tell the degree of each:—

Honesty is the — policy.

Be — of your health.

Be not — in well-doing.

Gerald is the — of my sons.

Augusta is — than Constance.

The — toys are bought here.

4. Write the comparatives and superlatives for the following adjectives and adverbs:—

Wise, warm, lovely, slowly, noble, heavily, beautiful, careless, abruptly, eloquently.

5. Collect all the incorrect expressions which you hear during this week, and compare them with those in (117).

LESSON XXXIX.

112. The different classes of words are called **Parts of Speech.**

113. To **parse** a word is to tell what part of speech it is, and all that belongs to it.

114. To parse a **noun** or a **pronoun** is to tell,—

1. The part of speech.
2. What kind.
3. What person.
4. What number.

5. What gender.

6. What case.

115. To parse a verb, tell,—

1. What part of speech.

2. What form, Regular or Irregular.

3. What kind, Transitive or Intransitive.

4. What voice.

5. What mode.

6. What tense.

7. What person.

8. What number.

116. To parse an adjective or an adverb, tell,—

1. What part of speech.

2. What degree of comparison.

3. What it belongs to or limits.

To parse a preposition, conjunction, or interjection, tell,—

1. What part of speech.

2. What it connects, or how it is used.

117. General Exercise.

Analyse the following sentences, and parse the words:—
Dreams have their variety.

You will be sure of a reward.

The sisters charm with their lovely songs.

A blunder often makes a precedent.

Hope is the blossom of happiness.

The blossoms are falling from the trees.

The wind sighs plaintively around her grave.

The raging tempest swept away every thing in its path.

Heaven opened wide her golden gates.

The wisest method has been pursued.

The children were studying their lesson in Arithmetic.

The Mexicans were defeated at Buena Vista.

The buds are swelling rapidly.

The vessel had not arrived yesterday.

Mabel is the younger of the two children.

The following are some of the actual expressions collected from a large number of schools. They should be carefully corrected.

2. Correct the following expressions:—

'Tain't no good. I hain't got no writin' pen. Did any one lost a pencil? I've got some on t'other side of me slate. You said 'twas yourn. Mine was writ better'n hisn, only he writ more nor I did. Brown taked me net off. Plase may I get me slate pencil off of Quinn? You be's telling on him. Please may I bring my slate to my sister? He done it, too, marm. He is to home. I wasn't hittin' 'em. Didn't go no place. He be's whispering. They are thirty-seven States. I don't want none. I can't git it no way. I ain't got no book. Be them two right? I can't see them numbers. I hurted me. I hain't going to stay too. My book is to home. He took and threw him down. Is them right? I've got a book. Be you coming to school? I jist saw him as him and me was coming up. I am most freezed. He went and rubbed it out. I ain't whispered neither. She's went home. I am goin' to get a hunk of ice. I cotched the ball. That pen ain't hern. You hadn't neither. He hit me with a great big large stone. May I set with Ida? The lesson ain't in it. That boy what sat on that seat ran out. A veil what you wear on your head. I found this 'ere on the winder. Here she are! My book is all tored up. The lesson is teared out. He be's all the time doin' it. I ain't doing nothin. I seen them. He is goin' to have me tooken up. Mother wanted to brung it home. All the hats ain't tooken. She didn't say nothin'.

Hullo, teacher! Florie and me went out and drove hoop. Hadn't there ought to be a point? The prime factors of 204 ain't here. There ain't none struck out. Are them close together? Ain't it right to multiply by them two? Be you a goin'? I ain't going to get any. Where be I goin' to set? I done you good. Me and Julia went there. Them books is mine. We'll catch 'em. James will go if he will be let. I readed it. My mother sends me to school so as not to have no bother of me to home: Run 'long, Johnnie. I can larn you more to home than ye'll ever get here. She wouldn't give me none. He goes earlier than me. I seen him going up the avenue. That boy what sets in that chair there dropped his book. She be's sick. I've larned it to her. They couldn't make no sense out of it at all. I ain't comin'. I won't whisper no more. She is prettier wayed than her sister. He never had no trouble before. Charlie licked another feller in the yard at recess. Somebody has took my book. It done me a great deal of good. She give me it. I liked her lots. They was goin' to git up. It's hern. She hadn't ought to say so. He ain't sick neither, for I seen him settin' on the curbstones. O, they thought it was dreadful cute. 'Tain't no good if it don't lock down. I like to stuck it clean through my hand. Is it the one I got on? I can't do it nohow. Sarah she said she wasn't comin' this afternoon. Be we a goin' home at half-past three? It's kind o' nice. She jawed her mother. Where was we? Be you going? I can't make it look good. I had ought to have some credit for that. I have wrote two lines. I see a box on her desk, yesterday. I don't understand the way they done it. Will I have to lose my seat? I heard an incorrect sentence and then I went and forgot it. They didn't have no provisions. My pen ain't good. How much be they (pens)? There is a good many that buys it. We done them over four or five times.

PART II. INTERMEDIATE COURSE.

[This course is intended to be intermediate between the elementary and the full course in the English Grammar.]

LESSON XL.

118. **English Grammar** treats of the principles of the English language.

119. **Grammar** is divided into four parts:—
Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

120. **Orthography** treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

Orthoepy treats of the proper pronunciation of words.

121. **Etymology** treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

122. **Syntax** treats of the structure of sentences.

123. **Prosody** treats of the laws of versification.

Of what does English Grammar treat? How is Grammar divided?
Of what does Orthography treat? Of what does Etymology treat? Of
what does Syntax treat? Of what does Prosody treat?

ORTHOGRAPHY.

LESSON XLI.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

124. **Orthography** treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

125. An **elementary** sound is the simplest sound in the language.

Ex.—The sounds of *a, e, b, k, s, m, p*.

These sounds, about forty in number, can be appreciated only when represented to the ear. Let the learner be taught to utter them distinctly, and he will then understand the following classification :

126. These sounds are divided into three classes :—**vocals**, **subvocals**, and **aspirates**.

127. The **vocals** consist of pure tone only.

Ex.—*a, e, i, o, u*.

128. The **subvocals** consist of tone united with breath.

Ex.—*b, d, l, m, n, r*.

What is an elementary sound? How many elementary sounds are there? Into what classes are the elementary sounds divided? What are the **vocals**? What are the **subvocals**?

129. The **aspirates** consist of pure breath only.

Ex.—*p, t, k, f.*

130. Exercise.

1. Utter first the word, and then the element, printed in *Italics*.

Vocals.—N-a-me, f-a-r, b-a-ll, *a-t*; m-e, m-e-t; f-i-ne, p-i-n; s-o-ld, m-o-ve, n-o-t; m-u-te, p-u-ll, c-u-p; f-ou-nd.

Subvocals.—B-at, d-og, g-o, j-oy, l-if-e, m-an, n-o, so-ng, ba-r, th-ose, v-oice, w-ise, y-es, z-one, a-zure.

Aspirates.—F-aith, h-at, ar-k, p-ine, s-un, t-ake, th-ink, sh-one, ch-urch, wh-en.

2. In the following examples, point out—

Five Vocals.—Lake, life, pet, sound, grove.

Six Subvocals.—Goat, boy, wife, star, jug, note.

Five Aspirates.—Hound, kite, thing, sing, where.

LESSON XLII.

LETTERS.

131. A **letter** is a character used to represent an elementary sound.

132. The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters:—A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.

What are the aspirates? What is a letter? How many letters are there in the English alphabet? Name them.

133. Those letters which represent vowels are called **vowels**. They are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

134. Those letters which represent subvocals and aspirates are called **consonants**.

135. The consonants are—

Subvocals—*b, d, g, j, l, m, n, r, v, z.*

Aspirates—*f, h, k, c, q, p, t, s.*

X is a subvocal when it is equivalent to *gs*, as in *exist*; and an aspirate when it is equivalent to *ks*, as in *wax*.

W and Y are consonants (subvocals) when they precede a vowel in the same syllable.

Ex.—*Wine, wet, yes, yew.*

In all other cases they are vowels.

Ex.—*Few, lovely, bow, boy.*

136. **Equivalents** are those letters or combinations of letters which represent the same sound.

Ex.—N-a-me, g-ay, th-ey, v-ain, g-au-ge.

137. A **variable** letter is one which represents several different sounds.

Ex.—F-a-me, f-a-r, f-a-t, h-a-ll, wh-a-t, li-a-r.

138. A **silent** letter is one which has no sound.

Ex.—Pe-a-rl, tho-ugh.

What are vowels? Name them. What are consonants? Name them. What are equivalents? Give examples. What is a variable letter? Give examples. What is a silent letter? Give examples.

139. Exercise.

1. Tell which letters are vowels, and which are consonants, in the following words:—

Name, war, come, peace, tree, fish, good, live, old, sad, young, wine, said, yet, win, new, gay, day.

2. Tell which of the following letters represent vocals, which subvocals, and which aspirates:—

t, r, v, a, f, g, m, c, d, k, p, o, w, s, h, y, x, l, e, j.

3. Give the sounds of *a* in name, war, bat, cabbage, fare, all, what; of *e* in mete, met, they, there, her; of *i* in pine, pin, sir; of *u* in mute, put, but, fur; of *c* in mice, sacrifice, cat; of *f* in fare, of; of *g* in give, go, gem, George; of *r* in read, rude, bar, far; of *s* in sit, sin, was, does, measure, pleasure; of *x* in wax, example.

LESSON XLIII.

COMBINATIONS OF LETTERS.

140. Two or more **vowels** may unite.

Ex.—*S-ou-nd*, *b-uoy*.

141. Two or more **consonants** may unite.

Ex.—*Bl-e-nd*, *thr-ee*.

142. A consonant may unite with a vowel.

Ex.—*An*, *no*, *did*, *call*.

143. A **diphthong** is the union of two vowels in one syllable.

Ex.—*Ou* in sound, *oi* in voice.

144. A **proper** diphthong is one in which both vowels are sounded.

Ex.—*Ou* in *thou*.

145. An **improper** diphthong is one in which one of the vowels is silent.

Ex.—*A* in *heat*.

146. A **triphthong** is the union of three vowels in one syllable.

Ex.—*Eau* in *beauty*.

147. A **proper** triphthong is one in which the three vowels are sounded.

Ex.—*Uoy* in *buoy*.

148. An **improper** triphthong is one in which one or two of the vowels are silent.

Ex.—The *ea* in *beauty*, the *ie* in *adieu*.

149. Exercise.

4. Point out the combinations in the following words:—Tell whether the diphthongs and triphthongs are proper or improper:—

Fear, pear, voice, sound, pierce, receive, Europe, people, view, adieu, beauty, though, shine, when, whip, chip, phrase, chaise, architect, motion, partial, option, session.

What is a proper diphthong? What is an improper diphthong? What is a triphthong? What is a proper triphthong? What is an improper triphthong?

LESSON XLIV.

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

150. A **syllable** is a letter or a combination of letters representing a sound uttered with one impulse of the voice.

Ex.—*Mat, mat-ter, ma-te-ri-al.*

151. The **essential** part of a syllable is a vowel.

By vowel is here meant a *vowel-sound*, whether represented by a single vowel, a diphthong, or a triphthong.

152. A syllable may consist—

1. Of a **vowel**; as, *a*-cre, *ei*-ther.
2. Of a **vowel** with one or more **consonants prefixed**; as, *ba*-sis, *bri*-er, *three*, *phthi*-sis.
3. Of a **vowel** with one or more **consonants affixed**; as, *an*, *elf*, *inter-ests*, *earths*.
4. Of a **vowel** with one or more consonants both **prefixed** and **affixed**; as, *n-oo-n*, *tr-u-th*, *thr-u-sts*.

153. A **word** consists of one syllable alone, or of two or more syllables united.

Ex.—*Faith, faith-ful.*

154. A word of one syllable is called a **monosyllable**.

Ex.—*Pen, boy, care.*

What is a syllable? What is the essential part of a syllable? Of what may a syllable consist? What is a word? What is a monosyllable?

155. A word of two syllables is called a **dissyllable**.

Ex.—*Na-ture, care-ful.*

156. A word of three syllables is called a **trisyllable**.

Ex.—*Nat-u-ral, care-ful-ness.*

157. A word of four or more syllables is called a **polysyllable**.

Ex.—*Un-nat-u-ral, con-sci-en-tious-ness.*

158. A word in no way derived from another is a **primitive** word.

Ex.—*Form, watch.*

159. A word formed by joining to a primitive some letter or syllable to modify its meaning, is a **derivative** word.

Ex.—*Re-form, watch-ful.*

160. A word formed by uniting two or more simple words is called a **compound** word.

Ex.—*Watchman, father-in-law.*

161. Exercise.

1. Divide the following words into syllables :—

Detection, inability, commotion, though, relate, unpremeditated, thoughtful.

2. Tell which of the following words are *primitive*, which *derivative*, and which *compound* :—

What is a dissyllable? What is a word of three syllables called? What is a polysyllable? What is a primitive word? What is a derivative word? What is a compound word?

Bright, fair, playful, joyless, income, book-store, cloud-capped, ink, form, uniform, housetop, dreary.

3. Form derivative words from the following primitives, and draw a line under the added syllable or letter :—

Hope, fear, peer, weak, form, grace, poet, weep.

4. Form compound words by joining some appropriate word to each of the following :—

Chest, bank, fire, weed, toll, work, land, busy.

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON XLV.

DEFINITIONS.

162. **Etymology** treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

163. A **word** is the sign of an **idea**, and is either spoken or written.

164. Words are divided into eight classes, called **Parts of Speech.**

165. The Parts of Speech are the **Noun**, the **Adjective**, the **Pronoun**, the **Verb**, the **Adverb**, the **Preposition**, the **Conjunction**, and the **Interjection.**

Of what does Etymology treat? What is a word? How are words divided? How many parts of speech are there? What are they?

166. A **noun** is the name of an object.

Ex.—*Peach, Frank, Salem.*

167. An **adjective** is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.

Ex.—*Wise, sweet, this, many.*

168. A **pronoun** is a word which takes the place of a noun.

Ex.—*I, he, who, they.*

169. A **verb** is a word which expresses being, action, or state.

Ex.—*Be, run, sleep, is written.*

170. An **adverb** is used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, a participle, or another adverb.

Ex.—*Slowly, first, far.*

171. A **preposition** is a word used to show the relation between a noun or a pronoun and some other word.

Ex.—*Above, with, into, under.*

172. A **conjunction** is a word used to connect either words, phrases, or propositions.

Ex.—*And, but, or, either.*

173. An **interjection** is used to express some emotion of the mind.

Ex.—*O! alas! ah! alack!*

What is a noun? An adjective? A pronoun? A verb? What is an adverb? What is a preposition? What is a conjunction? What is an interjection?

LESSON XLVI.

N O U N S.

174. A **noun** is the name of an object.

Ex.—*House, tree, Boston, goodness.*

The word “*object*” is here used to denote every species of existence, whether material or immaterial.

The *name* of any thing which has, or may be supposed to have, an independent existence, is a noun. Hence the name of a quality, taken alone, or apart from any object, is a noun; as, *brightness, smoothness*.

175. Nouns are divided into two classes, **Proper**, and **Common**.

176. A **proper** noun is the name of an individual object.

Ex.—*James, Erie, Wellington.*

177. A **common** noun is the name which applies to each individual of a class of objects.

Ex.—*Man, boy, house.*

Under the head of common nouns are commonly reckoned *Collective, Abstract, and Verbal* nouns.

A *collective* noun is one which, in the singular, denotes more than one object; as, *army, family, flock*.

An *abstract* noun is the name of a *quality* or an *action* considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as, *goodness, virtue, wisdom, movement*.

A *verbal* noun is a *participle* used as a noun; as, “He was convicted of *stealing*.”

What is a noun? What does the word “*object*” denote? When is the name of a quality a noun? How many classes of nouns are there? What is a proper noun? What is a common noun? What is a *collective noun*? What is an abstract noun? What is a verbal noun?

Any phrase or group of words used to represent an idea which can be considered alone, is of the nature of a noun or substantive; as, "*To be good is to be happy.*"

178. Exercise. (1.)

1. Select the nouns from the following examples:—

Beattie, the son of a Scottish farmer, was educated at the University of Aberdeen.

The father of Michael Bruce was a weaver in Scotland.

Cyprus is an island in the Mediterranean.

2. Tell which of the nouns above are common, and which are proper. Why?

3. Write a sentence containing two common and two proper nouns.

4. Write upon your slates five answers to the questions in your geography lesson. Observe the Cautions in (22), and select the nouns.

Exercise. (2.)

Exercises not numbered with heavy type are to be omitted the first time going through the book.

1. Point out the collective, abstract, and verbal nouns in the following examples:—

The hunters discovered a large herd of buffaloes.

The school was dismissed at twelve o'clock.

His greatness was excelled only by his goodness.

Lying is a degrading vice.

We should be forward in aiding the weak.

2. Change the following adjectives into abstract nouns:—

Faithful, hopeful, rough, brittle, sour, mild.

LESSON XLVII.

179. To nouns belong **Person**, **Number**, **Gender**, and **Case**.

PERSON.

180. **Person** is that property of a noun or a pronoun which shows its relation to the speaker.

A noun or a pronoun, representing the object *spoken of*, may be either the *speaker* himself, the person *spoken to* by the speaker, or merely the person or thing *spoken of* by the speaker. Hence the three relations to the speaker, called *person*.

181. There are three persons, the **first**, the **second**, and the **third**.

182. The **first** person denotes the speaker.

Ex.—*I*, the *commander*, issue this general order.

183. The **second** person denotes the person spoken to.

Ex.—*Children*, obey your parents.

184. The **third** person denotes the person or thing spoken of.

Ex.—*Thomas* did come. The *harvest* is abundant.

185. Exercise.

1. Tell the person of the nouns and pronouns in the following examples:—

What belong to nouns? What is person? What must a noun or a pronoun represent? How many persons are there? What does the first person denote? The second? The third?

Nero was a tyrant.

Children, obey your parents.

The ferryman took us safely across the river.

Babylon, how art thou fallen!

Thou art the man.

My brothers delight in surf-bathing.

I, Paul, myself beseech you.

2. Write ten sentences of your own, illustrating the three persons, and correct any improper expressions which you have heard.

LESSON XLVIII.

NUMBER.

186. **Number** is that property of a noun which distinguishes one object from more than one.

187. Nouns have *two* numbers: the **singular**, and the **plural**.

188. The **singular** number denotes but one object.

Ex.—Horse, river, mountain.

189. The **plural** number denotes more than one object.

Ex.—Horses, rivers, mountains.

190. The plural of nouns is **regularly** formed,—

1. By adding *s*, when the singular ends with a sound that can unite with *s*; as, *book*, *books*; *tree*, *trees*.

What is number? How many numbers have nouns? What is the singular number? What is the plural? How is the plural of nouns regularly formed?

2. By adding *es*, when the singular ends with a sound that cannot unite with *s*; as, *box, boxes; church, churches*.

191. The plural of nouns is **irregularly** formed in various ways:—

1. Nouns ending in **y** preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* and add *es*; as, *fly, flies; berry, berries; body, bodies*. If preceded by a vowel, the *y* is not changed; as, *boy, boys; toy, toys; valley, valleys*.

2. Some nouns ending in **f** and **fe** change these terminations to *ve*, and add *s*; as, *leaf, leaves; loaf, loaves; wife, wives*. So also with *calf, half, sheaf, shelf, life, thief, wharf, wolf, elf, and knife*. Other nouns in *f* and *fe* form the plural regularly; as, *gulf, gulfs; roof, roofs; fife, fifes*.

3. Nouns ending in **o** preceded by a consonant, add *es*; as, *potato, potatoes; cargo, cargoes*. If preceded by a vowel, *s* is added; as, *folio, folios; cameo, cameos*.

4. The following plurals are very irregular:—*Child, children; man, men; woman, women; brother, brothers or brethren; mouse, mice; die, dice (dies, stamps); tooth, teeth; foot, feet; ox, oxen; goose, geese; penny, pence or pennies*.

5. **Proper nouns**, most **abstract nouns**, and nouns denoting **substance**, have no plural; as, *Providence, goodness, wood, gold*. Sometimes, however, we say, “*the Stuarts*,” “*the Johnsons*.”

6. In **compound words**, if the principal word is placed first, it is varied to form the plural; as *courts-martial, sons-in-law*; but if placed last, the final word is changed; as *pailfuls, handfuls, &c.*

7. **Letters, marks, and figures** are pluralized by adding ‘*s*'; as, *the a's, the 9's, the +'s*.

Give the rule for nouns ending in *y*. In *f* and *fe*. Give the rule for nouns ending in *o*. Name eight nouns which have very irregular plurals. What kind of nouns have no plural? Give the rule for compound words. What plurals take ‘*s*'?

8. Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *tongs*, *riches*, *scissors*, *embers*, *ashes*, *bellows*, *drawers*.

9. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *dice*, *sheep*, *trout*, *dozen*, *swine*, *vermin*, *hose*, *yoke*, and others.

10. Nouns derived from foreign languages often retain their original plurals, as, *automaton*, *automata*; *axis*, *axes*; *bandit*, *banditti*; *beau*, *beaux*; *cherub*, *cherubim*; *focus*, *foci*; *memorandum*, *memoranda*; *nebula*, *nebulæ*; *radius*, *radii*; *stratum*, *strata*, and others.

192. Exercise. (1.)

1. Write the plural of the following nouns, and give the rule for the termination:—

Box, horse, glove, rose, torch, grass, oak, watch.

2. Fill the following blanks with nouns in the singular number:—

The _____ is a noble animal.

_____ is a virtue.

He has met his _____.

The sun shines upon the _____.

_____ is declared.

3. Fill the following blanks with plural nouns:—

_____ take to themselves wings.

The _____ are very lofty.

The _____ were well attended.

Henry has lost his _____.

I am delighted with _____.

4. Correct all the errors which you have noted to-day.

Exercise. (2.)

1. Give the plurals of the following nouns, with the rules for their formation:—

Give five nouns used only in the plural. Five alike in both numbers. Five plurals from foreign languages.

Lady, day, leaf, hoof, hero, ox, tooth, spoonful, x, solemn, focus, fox, star, ally, alley, sheep.

2. Fill the following blanks:—

(1.) With proper nouns:—

_____ descended the Alps.

_____ crossed the Delaware.

I visited _____.

(2.) With collective, abstract, or verbal nouns:—

_____ on the water is pleasant.

The _____ was disbanded.

The _____ was scattered by the wolves.

_____ is a vice.

_____ goeth before a fall.

Our _____ depends on ourselves.

3. Give the number of each noun in the exercise.

LESSON XLIX.

GENDER.

193. **Gender** is the distinction of nouns in regard to sex.

194. There are three genders, the **masculine**, the **feminine**, and the **neuter**.

195. Nouns which denote **males** are of the masculine gender.

Ex.—*Man, king, hero.*

196. Nouns which denote **females** are of the feminine gender.

Ex.—*Woman, queen, heroine.*

197. Nouns which denote objects **neither** male nor female, are of the neuter gender.

Ex.—*Tree, rock, paper.*

Some nouns denote **either** male or female; as, *parent, child, cousin*. These are said to be of the **common** gender; but as the gender must be either masculine or feminine, and may generally be determined by the connection, the distinction is scarcely necessary.

There are three methods of distinguishing the sexes:—

1. By using **different words**; as, *bachelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; father, mother.*

2. By **different terminations**; as, *count, countess; actor, actress; administrator, administratrix; hero, heroine.*

3. By **prefixes** and **suffixes**; as, *land-lord, land-lady; gentle-man, gentle-woman; he-goat, she-goat; man-servant, maid-servant.*

198. Exercise.

1. Tell the gender of the following nouns:—

Sailor, cap, lioness, captain, nun, widow, brother, sister, bridge, priest, wizard, countess.

2. Give the feminine of—

Man, abbot, hero, tiger, heir, prophet, male, widower, husband, host, master, king.

The masculine of—

Empress, songstress, mother, sister, actress.

3. Fill these blanks, the first two with common nouns in the masculine gender; the next two with proper nouns, one masculine and one feminine; the next two with neuter nouns:—

_____ is patient.

_____ reigns king of beasts.

— was a distinguished poet.

— entertained her guests with grace.

Ella has lost her —.

Harold is reading Cicero's —.

4. Write, correct, or improve any faulty sentences which you have collected.

Let the teacher persist in correcting all erroneous expressions.

LESSON L.

CASE.

199. **Case** denotes the relation of a noun or a pronoun to other words.

200. There are three cases, the **nominative**, the **possessive**, and the **objective**.

201. The **nominative** case is the simplest form of the noun, and is commonly the subject of a proposition.

Ex.—*George* speaks. The *door* was shut.

202. The **possessive** case denotes the relation of property or possession.

Ex.—*David's* harp.

203. When a noun or a pronoun follows a transitive verb, or a preposition, it is in the **objective** case.

Ex.—Thomas opened his *knife*. The bird sat on the *tree*.

What is case? How many cases are there? What is the nominative case? What is the possessive case? The objective?

FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE.

204. The possessive singular of nouns is regularly formed by adding an apostrophe ('') and the letter *s* to the nominative.

Ex.—*Man's, Calvin's.*

205. When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added.

Ex.—*Boys', ladies', kittens'.*

But the apostrophe and *s* are both added when it ends in any other letter.

Ex.—*Men's, women's, brethren's.*

The possessive case is known by its form. But the forms of the nominative and objective are alike, and must be determined by their relation to other words.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

206. The declension of a noun is its variation to denote number and case.

EXAMPLES.

1. BOY.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Boy.	Boys.
<i>Poss.</i>	Boy's.	Boys'.
<i>Obj.</i>	Boy.	Boys.

2. FLY.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Fly.	Flies.
<i>Poss.</i>	Fly's.	Flies'.
<i>Obj.</i>	Fly.	Flies.

How is the possessive regularly formed? Give the rule for the possessive plural. Which case is known by its form? What is the declension of a noun? Decline *Boy. Fly.*

3. JOHN.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	John.	wanting.
<i>Poss.</i>	John's.	—.
<i>Obj.</i>	John.	—.

207. MODEL FOR PARSING A NOUN.

“The dog barks.”

Dog is (1) a noun; it is the name of an object.

(2) common; it is the name of each individual of a class of objects.

(3) third person; it is spoken of.

(4) singular number; it denotes but one.

(5) masculine gender; it is the name of a male.

(6) nominative case; it is the subject of a proposition.

(7) *Rule 1.*—A noun or a pronoun, used as the subject of a preposition, must be in the nominative case.

208. Exercise.

1. Parse the nouns in the following examples:*

England was invaded by the Normans.

The rain descended.

The forests disappear.

I have seen Emily's pet fawn.

Theodore's horse is lame.

Rollo went into the garden.

The mountains raise their heads.

Decline *John*. Parse *dog* in the sentence, “The dog barks.”

* The rules may be omitted the first time going through.

Florence loved little Paul.

Rollo sat by his father's side.

2. Write five sentences about your walk to school.

LESSON LI.

ADJECTIVES.

209. An **adjective** is a word used to limit or qualify a noun.

Ex.—*A good scholar; a costly jewel.*

210. Adjectives are divided into two classes, **limiting**, and **qualifying**.

211. A **limiting** adjective is used to define or restrict the meaning of a noun, without expressing any of its qualities.

Ex.—*The house; those men.*

212. A **qualifying** adjective is one which limits the meaning of a noun, by denoting some property or quality.

Ex.—*A virtuous man; a large tree.*

To this class of adjectives belong the participles which have the *signification* of the verb and the *construction* of the adjective. When the participle is placed *before* the noun which it modifies, it is called a *participial adjective*; as, "*the rising sun.*" When it is placed *after* the noun to which it relates, it is called a *participle*; as, "*the sun rising in the east.*"

Any phrase or group of words added to a noun to limit its application or restrict its meaning, is of the nature of an adjective; as, "*The people of the United States of America.*"

What is an adjective? How are adjectives divided? What is a limiting adjective? What is a qualifying adjective? What is said of the participle?

213. **Limiting** adjectives are divided into three classes, *articles*, *pronominal adjectives*, and *numeral adjectives*.

214. The **articles** are *a* or *an*, and *the*.

215. **The** is called the *definite* article, because it points out some particular object.

Ex.—*The sun.*

216. **A**, or **an**, is called the *indefinite* article, because it does not point out any particular object.

Ex.—*A pen; an orchard.*

217. **An** is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound.

Ex.—*A union, an hour; a ewer, an eagle.*

218. **Pronominal** adjectives are those which, without the use of the article, may represent a noun when understood.

Ex.—*This (book) is mine; that is yours.*

The principal **pronominal adjectives** are:—This, that, these, those, former, latter, which, what, each, every, either, neither, some, one, none, any, all, such, much, both, few, first, last, little, many, own, same, several, sundry, enough.

219. **Numerical** adjectives are those which express number.

Ex.—*One, two, third, fourth.*

Into what classes are limiting adjectives divided? What are the articles? What is said of "the"? Of "a" or "an"? When is "an" used? When "a"? What are pronominal adjectives? What are the principal pronominal adjectives? What are numeral adjectives?

220. Numeral adjectives are divided into **carninal**, which denote *how many*;

Ex.—*One, two, three, &c.*

Ordinal, which show *which one of a series*;

Ex.—*First, second, third, &c.*

And **multiplicative**, which show *repetition*.

Ex.—*Twofold, threefold, &c.*

221. Exercise.

1. Tell the *kind* of adjectives in the following sentences:—

These scholars are very studious.

Anne is reading Roman history.

I saw a large flock of birds.

Two of the boys arrived punctually.

Dr. Kane explored the Arctic regions.

Albert took the first premium.

Few of the committee were present.

I am reading a very interesting book.

2. Fill the blanks in the following examples with adjectives, and tell the kind of each:—

— men sit at their doors.

The —— wind breathes gently forth.

— events cast their shadows before.

The traveller crossed the —— sea.

The nest contained —— —— robins.

3. What words are you in the habit of mispronouncing? Write them, and repeat the correct pronunciation often.

How are numeral adjectives divided?

LESSON LII.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

222. There are three degrees of comparison, the **positive**, the **comparative**, and the **superlative**.

223. The **positive** denotes a quality without comparison.

Ex.—*Righteous, pleasant.*

224. The **comparative** expresses a higher or lower degree than the positive.

Ex.—This tree is *taller* than that. Theodore is *less industrious* than his brother.

225. The **superlative** expresses the highest or lowest degree of the quality.

Ex.—The pine is the *tallest* tree in the grove. This boy is the *least studious* of all the scholars.

226. The comparative of monosyllables is **regularly formed** by adding *r* or *er*, and the superlative by adding *st* or *est*, to the positive.

Ex.—*Wise, wiser, wisest; bold, bolder, boldest.*

227. The comparative of most adjectives of more than one syllable is formed by prefixing **more** or **less**, and the superlative by prefixing **most** or **least**, to the positive.

Ex.—*Industrious, more industrious, most industrious; dutiful, less dutiful, least dutiful.*

How many degrees of comparison are there? What does the positive degree denote? The comparative? The superlative?

The following adjectives are compared irregularly:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good.	Better.	Best.
Bad or ill.	Worse.	Worst.
Much or many.	More.	Most.
Little.	Less or lesser.	Least.
Far.	Farther.	Farthest.
Near.	Nearer.	Nearest or next.
Late.	Later.	Latest or last.
Old.	Older or elder.	Oldest or eldest.

228. Exercise.

1. Give the degree of comparison of the following adjectives:—

Wild, colder, mildest, innocent, most comfortable, frail, least active.

2. Compare,—

Brave, strong, honorable, useful, thrifty, considerable, serene.

229. MODEL FOR PARSING AN ADJECTIVE.

“The faithful man will be rewarded.”

- Faithful* is (1) an *adjective*; it limits or qualifies a noun.
 (2) *qualifying*; it denotes a quality.
 (3) *positive degree*; it expresses quality without comparison,—compared, *faithful*, *more faithful*, *most faithful*.
 (4) it *belongs to* “man.”
 (5) *Rule V.*—An adjective or a participle belongs to some noun or pronoun.

How are adjectives regularly compared? How are adjectives of more than one syllable usually compared? Compare good, bad, ill, much, many, little, far, near, late, old. Parse “faithful,” as in the model.

Parse the adjectives in the following examples:—

There is no prouder grave.

His deeds have rendered him immortal.

They toiled through the Syrian desert.

Solomon was the wisest of kings.

The breaking waves dash'd high
On a stern and rock-bound coast;
And the woods against a stormy sky
Their giant branches toss'd.

LESSON LIII.

PRONOUNS.

230. A **pronoun** is a word which takes the place of a noun.

Ex.—The farmer ploughs *his* field; *he* reaps *his* wheat, and gathers *it* into *his* barn.

231. Pronouns are divided into three classes, *personal*, *relative*, and *interrogative*.

232. A **personal** pronoun is used both to represent a noun, and to show whether it is of the *first*, *second*, or *third* person.

233. The personal pronouns are,—

I, plural **we**, of the first person.

Thou or **you**, plural **ye** or **you**, of the second person.

He, plural **they**, of the third person, masculine.

She, plural **they**, of the third person, feminine.

It, plural **they**, of the third person, neuter.

What is a pronoun? How are they divided? What is a personal pronoun? Name the personal pronouns. Name the compound personal pronouns. What modifications belong to personal pronouns? Decline *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*.

234. The compound personal pronouns are,—
Myself, ourselves (first person); **thyself, yourself, yourselves** (second person); **himself, herself, itself, themselves** (third person).

235. To pronouns belong *Person, Number, Gender, and Case.*

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

236. The personal pronouns are thus declined :—

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I.	We.
<i>Poss.</i>	My or mine.	Our or ours.
<i>Obj.</i>	Me.	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thou.	Ye or you.
<i>Poss.</i>	Thy or thine.	Your or yours.
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee.	You.

THIRD PERSON. *Masculine.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He.	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	His.	Their or theirs.
<i>Obj.</i>	Him.	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Feminine.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	She.	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Her or hers.	Their or theirs.
<i>Obj.</i>	Her.	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Neuter.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	It.	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Its.	Their or theirs.
<i>Obj.</i>	It.	Them.

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Myself.	Ourselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	—.	—.
<i>Obj.</i>	Myself.	Ourselves.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thyself.	Yourselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	—.	—.
<i>Obj.</i>	Thyself.	Yourselves.

THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Himself.	Herself.	Itself.	
<i>Poss.</i>	—.	—.	—.	Themselves.
<i>Obj.</i>	Himself.	Herself.	Itself. 	

Of the possessives, *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are used when the noun is expressed; *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, when it is understood; and the latter must be changed to the former whenever the noun is supplied. “That book is *yours*; this is *mine*.” “That book is *your* book; this is *my* book.”

When *mine*, *thine*, &c., are used as in the above example, they seem to perform a double office: first, to represent the speaker, hearer, or person spoken of, as a possessor; and, secondly, like other limiting or qualifying words, when the noun is understood to represent or stand

When are *my*, *thy*, &c., used? When *mine*, *thine*, &c.? Explain the use of *mine*, *thine*, &c.

for that noun, not as a pronoun does, but as an adjective. Thus, we say, "*This* [book] is an arithmetic; *that* [book] is a geography." "*The violent* [persons] take it by force." "*Mine* [my task] was an easy task." Properly, neither of the above words is a noun. The first three are adjectives used to limit the noun understood, which follows them, and the last a personal pronoun in the possessive case, used to limit the noun *task*, understood. If it is ever proper to say that *this*, *that*, or *violent* are used as nouns, it is equally so of the word *mine*, not in its pronominal, but in its adjective office.

237. MODEL FOR PARSING A PERSONAL PRONOUN.

"The boys have lost their boat."

Their is (1) a *pronoun*; it stands for a noun.

- (2) *personal*; it is used to represent a noun and tell its person.
- (3) it represents *boys* for its antecedent.
- (4) declined, (sing.) *nom.*, he; *poss.*, his; *obj.*, him; (plural) *nom.*, they; *poss.*, their or theirs; *obj.*, them.
- (5) it is of the *third person, plural number, masculine gender*, because its antecedent is.
- (6) *Rule III.*—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.
- (7) *possessive case*, and limits *boat*.
- (8) *Rule VII.*—A noun or a pronoun used to limit another noun, by denoting possession, must be in the possessive case.

Parse the pronouns in the following examples:—

The king found himself in great distress.

Louisa has lost her gold pencil.

Arnold betrayed his country.
 I wish to visit them.
 We are going into the country.
 Granville will bring it to me.
 Hast thou a star to guide thy path?

LESSON LIV.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

238. A **relative** pronoun is used both to represent a preceding noun, called the *antecedent*, and to connect with it a dependent proposition.

Ex.—Those *who* *wish for favors*, must assist others.

239. The relatives are **who**, **which**, **that**, and **what**.

240. **Who** is used to represent persons; *which* and *what*, to represent things; and *that*, to represent both persons and things.

241. **What** is both an adjective and a relative.

Ex.—“He gave me *what* books I needed;”—that is, “He gave me *those* books *which* I needed.”

What is both a relative pronoun and a limiting adjective, and is equivalent to *that* or *those which*. When the antecedent is expressed, *what* should be parsed (1) as an adjective; (2) as a relative pronoun; as, “He gave me *what* books I wanted.” When the antecedent is omitted, the indefinite noun “things” may be supplied, and thus

What is a relative pronoun? What are the relatives? What are they severally used to represent? What is said of the relative “what”? To what is it equivalent when the noun is understood? How should it be parsed?

the case is always as above; or, it may be taken (1) as an adjective used as a noun; it is then itself the antecedent; (2) as a relative relating to itself as antecedent; as, "He gave me *what* I wanted."

242. The compound relatives are **whose**, **whoever**, **whosoever**, **whichever**, **whichsoever**, **whatever**, and **whatsoever**.

243. The **interrogative** pronouns are used in asking questions. They are **who**, **which**, and **what**.

244. The **noun** for which the interrogative stands is found in the answer.

Ex.—“Who came?” Ans.—*George*.

Which and **what** commonly refer to *things*, while **who** always refers to *persons*. The former, when followed by a noun, are *interrogative adjectives*; as, “What lessons have we to-day?”

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

	Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.
Nom.	Who.	Which.
Poss.	Whose.	Whose.
Obj.	Whom.	Which.

What and *that* are not declined; *whoever* and *whichever*, *whosoever* and *whichsoever*, are declined like the simple pronouns *who* and *which*.

Name the compound relatives. What are interrogative pronouns? Name them. Where is the noun for which the interrogative stands? When are *which* and *what* interrogative adjectives? Decline the pronouns *who* and *which*. What is said of the other relatives?

245. MODELS FOR PARSING.

"The man *who* is attached to religion, may be relied on."

Who is (1) a *pronoun*; it takes the place of the noun *man*.

(2) *relative*; it represents the noun *man* as its antecedent, and connects with it the proposition "who is attached to religion."

(3) declined—*nom.*, who; *poss.*, whose; *obj.*, whom.
 (4) *third person, singular number, masculine gender.*

Rule III.

(5) *nominative case*, and is the subject of the proposition "who is attached," &c. Rule I.

"I gave him *what* he wanted."

What is (1) a *relative pronoun*, used also as an adjective.

(2) as an *adjective*, it belongs to "things" understood, or may be used as the noun "things," and is equivalent to *those*. Rule V.

(3) as a *relative*, it relates to "things," or to itself, used as the noun "things," and is equivalent to *which*.

(4) as *antecedent*, it is of the third person, plural number, neuter gender, objective case, and is the object of *gave*. Rule VIII.

(5) as *relative*, it is of the third person, plural number, neuter gender (Rule III.), and is governed by *wanted*. Rule VIII.

These models, with a slight change, answer for the interrogative pronouns.

246. Exercise.

- Parse the pronouns in the following examples:—
 My father, whom I loved, is dead.

He best can bear reproof who merits praise.

Look at that beautiful butterfly which is sporting so gayly in the sunshine.

The vessel in which I embarked was wrecked.

I could not discover what he came for:

What have you done to him?

Who have visited the panorama?

The man that attacked you is arrested.

2. Write out and correct the faulty examples which you have heard this week.

That is a *relative* when *who*, *which*, or *whom* can be used in its place. It is an *adjective* when a noun can be placed after it; as, "That (glove) is mine." In all other cases it is a *conjunction*.

1. Tell what part of speech "that" is in the following examples:—

Give me that knife.

Do you like the horse that you bought?

The lawyer that I consulted has left the city.

That is my eldest sister.

How large that melon is!

I think that Cornelia will go.

The strange man that Richard met, was a gipsy.

Eveline has gone to hear that celebrated singer.

Horace hopes that he shall enter college next year.

That picture that you admired, is sold.

I think that that machine that you examined, will succeed.

2. Write two sentences containing "that" as a relative; two, as an adjective; and two, as a conjunction.

3. Collect all your own faulty expressions for the last week, and repeat the corrections aloud.

LESSON LV.

VERBS.—CLASSES OF VERBS.

247. A **verb** is a word which expresses being, action, or state.

Ex.—*Be, read, sleep, is loved.*

The being, action, or state may be *affirmed, assumed, or used abstractly*; as, “George *runs*; George *running*; to *run*.”

When a verb affirms something of a person or thing, it is called *finite*, being limited by the person and number of its subject. When it has no subject, it does not affirm, and is not limited, and is, hence, called the *infinitive*; as, “*to run*.”

248. Verbs are divided, according to their *use*, into **transitive** and **intransitive**.

249. A **transitive** verb requires the addition of an object to complete its meaning.

Ex.—James struck John.

250. An **intransitive** verb does not require the addition of an object to complete its meaning.

Ex.—The horse *runs*.

251. Verbs are divided, according to their *form*, into **regular** and **irregular**.

252. A **regular** verb is one which forms its

What is a verb? How may the *being, action, or state* be used? What is a finite verb? What is an infinitive? How are verbs divided according to their *use*? According to their *form*? What is a transitive verb? An intransitive? What is a regular verb?

past tense and past participle by adding “*ed*”* to the present tense.

Ex.—Repair, repaired; love, loved.

253. An **irregular** verb is one which does not form the past tense and past participle by the addition of *ed* to the present tense.

Ex.—See, saw, seen; write, wrote, written.

254. A **defective** verb is one in which some of the principal parts are wanting.

Ex.—May, might (participles wanting).

255. An **auxiliary** verb is one which is employed in the conjugation of other verbs.

Ex.—Have, in “have loved.”

256. An **impersonal** verb is one by which an action or state is asserted independently of any particular subject.

Ex.—It rains; it snows.

257. A **redundant** verb has more than one form for its past tense and past participle.

Ex.—Thrive, thrived or throve, thrived or thriven.

What is an irregular verb? A defective verb? An auxiliary? An impersonal verb? A redundant verb?

* In every regular verb the past tense and past participle are invariably formed by adding *ed* to the present tense. But in such verbs as *love*, *move*, *live*, &c., the final *e* is dropped before the addition is made.

258. Exercise.

1. Point out the verbs in the following examples, and tell whether they are transitive or intransitive, regular or irregular:—

The twilight deepens.

I have dug the garden.

Gertrude is travelling in Europe.

Have you read Everett's oration?

The sexton rings the bell.

The lady invited her friends to visit her.

The little boy is very fond of his rocking-horse.

They act charades.

Milton wrote Paradise Lost.

2. Write five sentences containing *regular* and five containing *irregular* verbs.

3. Write five sentences containing *transitive* and five containing *intransitive* verbs.

LESSON LVI.

259. To verbs belong **voice**, **mode**, **tense**, **number**, and **person**.

VOICE.

260. **Voice** is that form of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject *acts*, or is *acted upon*.

261. There are two voices, the **active** and the **passive**.

262. The **active** voice represents the subject as acting.

Ex.—John *struck* William.

Here *John* is the subject, and is the one who *acts*.

263. The **passive** voice represents the subject as *acted upon*.

Ex.—William *was struck* by John.

Here *William* is the subject, but he does not act; he only *receives* the action put forth by John.

264. The passive form of the verb consists of the verb **to be**, in its various modes and tenses, joined to the **passive participle** of the verb.

Ex.—It *is moved*; It *was moved*; It *will be moved*.

The passive voice is used when the actor is unknown, or when we wish to conceal his name.

Intransitive verbs have no passive voice. Such verbs as "*I am come*;" "*Babylon is fallen*," are not passive, but intransitive with a passive form.

Some verbs, usually intransitive, become transitive when used with a causative signification, or with a noun of kindred meaning; as, "They ran a train (caused it to run) at the rate of forty miles an hour;" "He ran a race;" "He sleeps the *sleep of death*." These verbs may have a passive form; as, "The train was run," &c.

265. Exercise.

1. Point out the verbs in the following examples; tell which are transitive and which are intransitive; which

What is the active voice? The passive? Of what does the passive form of the verb consist? What is said of intransitive verbs? When are intransitive verbs used transitively?

are regular and which are irregular; which are of the active and which of the passive voice:—

Abraham sat in the door of his tent. He lived to a good old age.

May I live the life of the righteous.

Chaucer was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Spenser was born in 1553.

The quality of mercy is not strained.

Ay, call it holy ground,

The soil where first they trod :

They have left unstained what there they found,

Freedom to worship God.

The stars were hidden by a thick cloud.

Another race has filled these populous borders.

The melancholy days are come.

The brightness of their smile was gone.

Group after group are gathering.

To prayer! to prayer! for the sun hath gone,
And the gathering darkness of night comes on.

LESSON LVII.

MODE.

266. **Mode** is the manner in which the being, action, or state is asserted.

267. There are commonly reckoned five modes,—the **indicative**, the **potential**, the **subjunctive**, the **imperative**, and the **infinitive**.

The infinitive is not properly a mode of the verb, as it does not assert action at all. It may be called simply *the infinitive*.

268. The **indicative** mode asserts a thing as *actually existing*.

Ex.—James *loves*; William *was struck*.

269. The **potential** mode asserts the *power, liberty, permission, necessity, or duty* of acting, or being in a certain state.

Ex.—We *can sing*; We *may write*; He *must read*; They *should obey* the law.

270. The **subjunctive** mode asserts a thing as *conditional or doubtful*.

Ex.—If he *leave* me; Though he *slay* me.

271. The **imperative** mode asserts a *command, an entreaty, or a permission*.

Ex.—*Write*; *Go thou*; *Be admonished*.

272. The **infinitive** represents the action or state as an abstract noun.

Ex.—*To write*; *To be seen*.

273. Exercise.

1. Give the modes of the following verbs.

The gentle needs the strong to sustain it.

Lead on! my orphan boy! It may bring to thee a joy.

—God hath spoken,
And the strong arm I leaned upon is broken.

Thou wilt dream that the world is fair.
 Canst thou bind the sweet influences of Pleiades?
 Rend your hearts, and not your garments.
 Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.

2. Write examples illustrating the different modes.

LESSON LVIII.

PARTICIPLES.

274. A **participle** is a word having the signification of the verb, but the construction of the adjective.

Ex.—We found him *lying* on the ground. *Having written* his letter, he sent it to his friend.

The participle is so called from its participating in the properties of the verb and adjective.

Sometimes the participle, with the signification of the verb, has the construction of the noun; as, "He was engaged in *reading* Shakspeare."

275. There are properly two participles, the *present* and the *perfect*; as, *reading*, *having read*; (*being*) *loved*, *having been loved*.

276. There are, however, three forms commonly called participles, the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*.

EXAMPLES.

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
<i>Active Voice.</i>	Loving.	Loved.	Having loved.
<i>Passive Voice.</i>	Being loved.	Loved.	Having been loved.

What is a participle? Why so called? What construction has the participle sometimes? How many participles are there? What three forms are commonly used?

The form called the *past participle* was probably a passive participle, having always a passive meaning; as, "He has treasures *concealed*;" "He has *concealed* treasures." This last form of expression has come eventually to assume an active meaning; as, "He has *concealed* his treasures." In this change of meaning, it has properly lost its character as a participle. It never partakes of the properties of an adjective, but is purely verbal, being associated with *have* in the predicate, and belongs equally to transitive or intransitive verbs. Yet, alone, it is not a verb, since it has no power to predicate. We cannot say, "He written;" "They eaten." It is used with *have*, to denote a completed act.

277. The present active participle denotes an action or state present and in progress at the time represented by the principal verb.

Ex.—We find, found, or shall find him *sitting* in a chair.

This participle always ends in *ing*, and has an active signification, and may be either transitive or intransitive. Like the other participles, it dates from the time of the principal verb, and not from the time of speaking.

278. The present passive participle denotes the reception of an act at the time represented by the principal verb.

Ex.—He lives, lived, will live, *loved* by all.

279. The perfect active participle denotes an action or state completed at the time represented by the principal verb.

Ex.—*Having finished* his speech, he *sat* down.

The actual time of the completion may be prior to the time denoted by the principal verb.

What is said of the past participle? What does the present active participle denote? What remark upon the present active participle? What does it denote? What does the present passive participle denote? What does the perfect active participle denote? What remark?

280. The **perfect passive** participle denotes the reception of an act past and completed at the time represented by the principal verb.

Ex.—*Having been driven* from home, he enlisted in the army.

281. The action or state expressed by the participle may be either **predicated** or **assumed**.

Ex.—The horse *is running* through the street; The horse *running* through the street.

282. Exercise.

1. Give the active participles of—

Sit, lay, do, arrive, delay.

2. Give the participles of—

Throw, write, destroy, obtain.

3. Classify the participles in the following examples:—

Having crossed the river, I ascended the mountain.

Philip, running very fast, soon overtook his father.

Virginia died, lamented by all.

I saw Emily sitting by the window.

Having come to the shore, we moored our boat.

Honor lost, all is lost.

Having once been deceived, I could trust him no longer.

See the meadow, covered with flowers.

283. MODEL FOR PARSING A PARTICIPLE.

Having written my letter, I directed it carefully.

What does the perfect passive participle show? How may the participle be used? Parse "having written," as in the model.

Having written is (1) *a participle*. Why? From write
(write, wrote, written).

(2) *perfect active*. Why? (Writing,
written, having written.)

(3) belongs to "I." *Rule*.—An adjective or a participle must belong to some noun or pronoun.

He is occupied in teaching German.

Teaching is a participial noun. As a *transitive participle*, it is limited by *German* as its object. As a *noun*, it is third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and completes the relation of the preposition *in*. *Rule*.—A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition is in the objective case.

Parse the following participles:—

Edith went on her way, singing merrily.

In keeping his commandments there is great reward.

Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again.

Being defeated many times, they finally retired.

Having taken the city, the general gave it up to pillage.

The grass having been mown, the hay-makers returned home.

Lawrence fell from the tree, in attempting to reach the nest.

Uttered not, yet comprehended,
Is the spirit's voiceless prayer;
Soft rebukes, with blessings ended,
Breathing from her lips of air.

I see them, escaped from these perils, pursuing their all but desperate undertaking, and landed at last on the ice-clad rocks of Plymouth.

LESSON LIX.

TENSE.

284. **Tense** denotes the *time* of an action or an event, with reference to the *time of speaking*.

285. An action is **progressive** when it is represented as *unfinished*; **perfect** when it is represented as *completed*; and **indefinite** when both of these states are merely *supposed*, but not indicated.

Ex.—*I am writing; I have written; I write.*

286. There are three divisions of time, the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*.

287. Each division has two tenses, an *absolute* and a *relative*. There are, therefore, six tenses, three absolute and three relative.

EXAMPLES.

Absolute. I write. I wrote. I shall write.

Relative. I have written. I had written. I shall have written.

288. The tenses are the *present*, the *present perfect*, the *past*, the *past perfect*, the *future*, the *future perfect*.

289. The **present** tense represents what takes place in present time.

Ex.—*I see, I am seeing, I do see, I am seen.*

What does tense denote? Why do we have different forms of the verb to denote the same time? How many divisions of time are there? How many tenses in each division? Give the examples. Name the six tenses. What does the present tense represent?

Present time may mean the moment of speaking, or it may mean a period of time including the moment of speaking; as, *to-day*, *this week*, *this year*. The present tense may be used to denote an act, *complete* at the moment of speaking; as, "I *see* it;" or *incomplete*; as, "The boy *is studying*;"—as a custom or habit; as, "He *studies* music;"—as a universal truth; as, "God *is just*." It is also used for other tenses; as, "Matthew *traces* the descent of Joseph; Luke *traces* that of Mary."

290. The **present perfect** tense represents a past event completed in present time.

Ex.—*I have seen, I have been seeing, I have been seen.*

Present time in the perfect tense always embraces a period including the time of speaking and the time in which the act or event is completed. The completion of the act takes place prior to the time of speaking, but always *within* the time assumed as present; otherwise the past should be used.

291. The **past** tense represents what took place in time wholly past.

Ex.—*I saw, I was seeing, I did see, I was seen.*

292. The **past perfect** tense represents a past event as completed in time wholly past.

Ex.—*I had seen, I had been seeing, I had been seen.*

293. The **future** tense represents what will take place in future time.

Ex.—*I shall see, I shall be seeing, I shall be seen.*

294. The **future perfect** tense represents an event as completed in future time.

Ex.—*I shall have seen, I shall have been seeing, I shall have been seen.*

What do we mean by *present* time? What does the present perfect tense denote? What does present time in the perfect tense embrace? What does the past tense represent? The past perfect? The future? The future perfect?

295. The indicative and subjunctive modes have six tenses each; the potential, four; the infinitive, two; and the imperative, one.

FORMS OF THE VERB.

296. **Transitive** verbs have four forms, the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *progressive*, and the *passive*.

Ex.—*I love, I do love, I am loving, I am loved.*

297. **Intransitive** verbs may have three forms, the *common*, the *emphatic*, and the *progressive*.

Ex.—*I sit, I do sit, I am sitting.*

298. The **common** form represents an act indefinitely, as a custom, or as completed without reference to its progress.

Ex.—*I love, I loved, I shall love, I have loved.*

299. The **emphatic** form represents an act with emphasis, or is used in asking questions.

Ex.—*I do write, I did write, Does he write?*

300. The **progressive** form represents an act in its progress, either as yet unfinished, as, "I am writing," or as completed; as, "I have been writing."

How many tenses has each mode? How many forms have transitive verbs? How many have intransitive? What is the common form? The emphatic? The progressive?

301. The **passive** form represents the reception of an act.

Ex.—*I am loved, I was loved, I shall be loved.*

302. The **number** and **person** of the verb are properties which show its agreement with the subject. Like the subject, the verb may have two numbers and three persons.

The form of the verb "to be" changes to show the number and person. In the solemn scriptural or poetic style, the second person singular, indicative present, ends in *est*; as, "*Lovest thou me?*" The third person singular, commonly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the simple verb, assumes *eth* in the solemn style; as, "*He goeth.*"

303. Exercise.

1. Tell the *tenses* of the following verbs:—

Did you hear the lecture?

Archibald listened attentively.

It will not rain.

Augusta had intended to go.

I have heard the Irish orator.

My father saw the constellation of the Southern Cross.

Is Theodore confident of success?

I shall have finished my work when Maria arrives.

Had your cousin read the book?

The hills were covered with snow.

2. Tell the *tenses* and *forms* of the following verbs:—

The paper is published in Boston.

Sorrow is the common lot of man.

I do not mind the storm.

What is the passive form? What is said of the number and person of the verb? How is the second person singular formed? How is the third person?

Carlton has gained the prize.
 Guy has been learning to skate.
 Charlemagne was beloved by his people.
 Shepherd, lead on !
 Thus far shalt thou go.
 If thy brother die, he shall rise again.
 Thou must go to rest.
 He sunk to repose where the red heaths are blended.
 Pale mourned the lily, where the rose had died.
 His own mother would hardly have known him.
 Ida was walking on the beach.
 The sun will have set when I reach home.

LESSON LX.

CONJUGATION.

304. The **conjugation** of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *modes, tenses, voices, numbers, and persons*.

305. The conjugation of the verb is effected by a **change** of its form, or by the use of **auxiliaries**.

The only tenses which change their form are the present and the past; as, sit, sittest, sits, sat, sattest.

306. **Auxiliary** verbs are those which are used in conjugating other verbs. They are—

Present.—Do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must.

Past.—Did, was, had, should, would, might, could.

What is the conjugation of a verb? How is the conjugation of a verb effected? What are the only tenses that change their form? What are auxiliary verbs? Name the auxiliaries in the present tense. In the past.

307. The **principal parts** of a verb are the *present indicative*, the *past indicative*, and the *past participle*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Explain.	Explained.	Explained.
Reply.	Replied.	Replied.
Write.	Wrote.	Written.
Shine.	Shone.	Shone.
Hurt.	Hurt.	Hurt.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO BE."

308. The conjugation of a verb is effected either by changing its form or by prefixing one or more auxiliaries to some one of its forms.

Let the pupil observe the forms of the tenses, as he learns the conjugation of the different modes and tenses.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am,	We are,
2. Thou art,	You are,
3. He is.	They are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been,	We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	You have been,
3. He has been.	They have been.

What are the principal parts of a verb? Give the principal parts of "explain," "reply," "write," "shine," "hurt." Conjugate the verb "to be."

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I was.
2. Thou wast,
3. He was.

Plural.

- We were,
You were,
They were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been.

Plural.

- We had been,
You had been,
They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will be,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be,
3. He shall *or* will be.

Plural.

- We shall *or* will be,
You shall *or* will be,
They shall *or* will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will have been,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been,
3. He shall *or* will have been.

Plural.

- We shall *or* will have been,
You shall *or* will have been,
They shall *or* will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may be,*
2. Thou mayst be,
3. He may be.

Plural.

- We may be,
You may be,
They may be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,
3. He may have been.

Plural.

- We may have been,
You may have been,
They may have been.

* Conjugate with each auxiliary, or with all united, thus: I *may*, *can*, or *must* be.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might be,
2. Thou mightst be,
3. He might be.

Plural.

- We might be,
You might be,
They might be.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,
3. He might have been.

Plural.

- We might have been,
You might have been,
They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I am,
2. If thou art,
3. If he is.

Plural.

- If we are,
If you are,
If they are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I have been,
2. If thou hast been,
3. If he has been.

Plural.

- If we have been.
If you have been,
If they have been.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I was,
2. If thou wast,
3. If he was.

Plural.

- If we were,
If you were,
If they were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I had been,
2. If thou hadst been,
3. If he had been.

Plural.

- If we had been,
If you had been,
If they had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I shall *or* will be,
 2. If thou shalt *or* wilt be,
 3. If he shall *or* will be.
- If we shall *or* will be,
If you shall *or* will be,
If they shall *or* will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I shall *or* will have been,
 2. If thou shalt *or* wilt have been,
 3. If he shall *or* will have been.
- If we shall *or* will have been,
If you shall *or* will have been,
If they shall *or* will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

Besides the forms already given, the subjunctive has another in the present and past, peculiar to itself.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I be,
 2. If thou be,
 3. If he be.
- If we be,
If you be,
If they be.

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I were,
 2. If thou wert,
 3. If he were.
- If we were,
If you were,
If they were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- Be, *or* Be thou.
- Be ye *or* you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE. To be.

PRESENT PERFECT. To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. Being. PAST. Been.
PERFECT. Having been.

COMMON STYLE.

Conjugate the verb BE in the common style, thus:—

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am,	We are,
2. You are,	You are,
3. He is.	They are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been,	We have been,
2. You have been,	You have been,
3. He has been.	They have been.

In the same manner let the learner go through all the tenses and modes.

309. SYNOPSIS is a short view of the verb, showing its forms through the modes and tenses in a single number and person.

Ex.—In the first person singular, we have, IND. *Pres.*, I am; *Pres. Per.*, I have been; *Past*, I was; *Past Per.*, I had been; *Fut.*, I shall be; *Fut. Per.*, I shall have been. POT. *Pres.*, I may be; *Pres. Per.*, I may have been; *Past*, I might be; *Past Per.*, I might have been. SUB. *Pres.*, If I am, &c.

310. Exercise.

In what mode and tense are the following verbs?—

I am. He has been. If I were. You can be. He

might be. To have been. They were. He will have been. You might be. She had been. You will be. To be. I must have been. Thou art. If he be. If you are. They might have been. We were. I had been. Thou wast. He is.

Give a synopsis of "TO BE," in the IND. second person singular, sec. plur., first per. plur., sec. per. plur., third per. plur. POT. third per. sing. second per. plur., third per. plur. SUB. sec. per. sing., sec. per. plur., third per. plur., first per. plur.

LESSON LXI.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB "TO LOVE."

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I love,	We love,
2. Thou lovest,	You love,
3. He loves.	They love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have loved,	We have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,	You have loved,
3. He has loved.	They have loved.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I loved,	We loved,
2. Thou lovedst,	You loved,
3. He loved.	They loved.

Give the synopsis. Conjugate the verb "To Love," active—passive.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved.

Plural.

- We had loved,
You had loved,
They had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will love,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt love,
3. He shall *or* will love.

Plural.

- We shall *or* will love,
You shall *or* will love,
They shall *or* will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will have loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have loved,
3. He shall *or* will have loved.

Plural.

- We shall *or* will have loved,
You shall *or* will have loved,
They shall *or* will have loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may love,
2. Thou mayst love,
3. He may love.

Plural.

- We may love,
You may love,
They may love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,
3. He may have loved.

Plural.

- We may have loved,
You may have loved,
They may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might love,
2. Thou mightst love,
3. He might love.

Plural.

- We might love,
You might love,
They might love.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,
3. He might have loved.

Plural.

- We might have loved,
- You might have loved,
- They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I love,
2. If thou lovest,
3. If he loves.

Plural.

- If we love,
- If you love,
- If they love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I have loved,
2. If thou hast loved,
3. If he has loved.

Plural.

- If we have loved,
- If you have loved,
- If they have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I loved,
2. If thou lovedst,
3. If he loved.

Plural.

- If we loved,
- If you loved,
- If they loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I had loved,
2. If thou hadst loved,
3. If he had loved.

Plural.

- If we had loved,
- If you had loved,
- If they had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will love,
2. If thou shalt or wilt love,
3. If he shall or will love.

Plural.

- If we shall or will love,
- If you shall or will love,
- If they shall or will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I shall or will have loved, If we shall or will have loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilt have loved, If you shall or will have loved,
3. If he shall or will have loved. If they shall or will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I love, If we love,
2. If thou love, If you love,
3. If he love. If they love.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- Love, or Love thou. Love, or Love you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

- PRESENT. To love. PERFECT. To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------|
| PRESENT. Loving. | PAST. Loved. |
| PERFECT. Having loved. | |

A

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I am loved, We are loved,
2. Thou art loved, You are loved,
3. He is loved. They are loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I have been loved, We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved, You have been loved,
3. He has been loved. They have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I was loved,
2. Thou wast loved,
3. He was loved.

Plural.

- We were loved,
You were loved,
They were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,
3. He had been loved.

Plural.

- We had been loved,
You had been loved,
They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will be loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be loved,
3. He shall *or* will be loved.

Plural.

- We shall *or* will be loved,
You shall *or* will be loved,
They shall *or* will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will have been loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been loved,
3. He shall *or* will have been loved.

Plural.

- We shall *or* will have been loved,
You shall *or* will have been loved,
They shall *or* will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may be loved,
2. Thou mayst be loved,
3. He may be loved.

Plural.

- We may be loved,
You may be loved,
They may be loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have been loved,
2. Thou mayst have been loved,
3. He may have been loved.

Plural.

- We may have been loved,
You may have been loved,
They may have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might be loved,
2. Thou mightst be loved,
3. He might be loved.

Plural.

- We might be loved,
- You might be loved,
- They might be loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might have been loved,
2. Thou mightst have been loved,
3. He might have been loved.

Plural.

- We might have been loved,
- You might have been loved,
- They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I am loved,
2. If thou art loved,
3. If he is loved.

Plural.

- If we are loved,
- If you are loved,
- If they are loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I have been loved,
2. If thou hast been loved
3. If he has been loved.

Plural.

- If we have been loved,
- If you have been loved,
- If they have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I was loved,
2. If thou wast loved,
3. If he were loved.

Plural.

- If we were loved,
- If you were loved,
- If they were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I had been loved,
2. If thou hadst been loved,
3. If he had been loved,

Plural.

- If we had been loved,
- If you had been loved,
- If they had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I shall or will be loved,
 2. If thou shalt or wilt be loved,
 3. If he shall or will be loved.
- If we shall or will be loved,
If you shall or will be loved.
If they shall or will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I shall or will have been loved,
 2. If thou shalt or wilt have been loved,
 3. If he shall or will have been loved.
- If we shall or will have been loved,
If you shall or will have been loved,
If they shall or will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I be loved,
 2. If thou be loved,
 3. If he be loved.
- If we be loved,
If you be loved,
If they be loved.

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I were loved,
 2. If thou wert loved,
 3. If he were loved.
- If we were loved,
If you were loved,
If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Be loved, or Be thou loved.

Be loved, or Be you loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT. To be loved.

PERFECT. To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. Being loved.

PAST (PASSIVE). Loved.

PERFECT. Having been loved.

311. Exercise.

1. Tell the mode, tense, voice, number, and person of the following verb:—

She has loved. I might love. We had loved. We had been loved. He may have loved. If I be loved. I love. He will love. He shall have loved. I have loved. They shall have loved. She is loved. We may be loved. You might have been loved. If I love. If they love. They may love. We will love. I had loved. Thou hast loved. Thou wilt have loved. Thou art loved. He was loved. She will have been loved.

2. Write or repeat a full conjugation of the following verbs:—

Relieve, betray, defy, persuade, resolve, determine.

3. Conjugate two of the above verbs interrogatively, two of them negatively, and two of them interrogatively and negatively. Thus:—

Do I love? &c. I do not love, &c. Do I not love? &c.

4. Conjugate one of them in the *Common Style*.

LESSON LXII.

312. 1. An **irregular** verb is one which does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present tense.

Ex.—*See, saw, seen; write, wrote, written.*

The irregular verbs were much more numerous in the early history of the language than at present. The tendency in modern English is constantly to diminish the number of irregular formations: hence the numerous obsolete forms. Some of the present forms are derived from other verbs. *Went* comes from *wend*, and not from *go*. Philologists call the irregular the *strong*, and the regular the *weak* inflection.

2. The following list contains the principal parts of the irregular verbs. Those verbs which are marked **R.** have

also the regular forms. Those which are *italicized* are either obsolete or are becoming so, and should not be committed to memory. When the **R** is *dark-faced*, the regular form is preferred, and should be repeated first; *r.* in italics means regular, but seldom used.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Arise,	Arose,	Arisen.
Awake,	Awoke, <i>r.</i>	Awaked.
Be <i>or</i> am,	Was,	Been.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>),	Bore, <i>bare</i> ,	Born.
Bear (<i>to carry</i>),	Bore, <i>bare</i> ,	Borne.
Beat,	Beat,	Beaten, beat.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Belay,	Belaid, R.	Belaid, <i>R.</i>
Bend,	Bent, <i>r.</i>	Bent, <i>r.</i>
Bet,	Bet, R.	Bet, <i>R.</i>
Bereave,	Bereft,	Bereft, <i>r.</i>
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought.
Bid,	Bid, bade,	Bidden, bid.
Bind, <i>Un-</i>	Bound,	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blend,	Blent, R.	Blent, R.
Bless,	Blest, R.	Blest, R.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke, <i>brake</i> ,	Broken, <i>broke</i> .
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build, <i>Re-</i>	Built, <i>r.</i>	Built, <i>r.</i>
Burn,	Burnt, R.	Burnt, R.
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught, <i>r.</i>	Caught, <i>r.</i>
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden, chid.
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave (<i>to adhere</i>),	Cleaved, <i>clare</i> ,	Cleaved.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Cleave (<i>to split</i>),	Clove, cleft, <i>clave</i> ,	Cleft, <i>cloven</i> , <i>r.</i>
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe,	Clad, <i>R.</i>	Clad, <i>R.</i>
Come, <i>Be-</i> ,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow,	Crew, <i>R.</i>	Crowed.
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare (<i>to venture</i>),	Durst, <i>R.</i>	Dared.
Dare (<i>to challenge</i>), <i>R.</i>	Dared,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealt, <i>r.</i>	Dealt, <i>r.</i>
Dig,	Dug, <i>r.</i>	Dug, <i>r.</i>
Do, <i>Mis-</i> , <i>Un-</i> , <i>Out-</i> ,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream,	Dreamt, <i>R.</i>	Dreamt, <i>R.</i>
Dress,	Drest, <i>R.</i>	Drest, <i>R.</i>
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk, drank.
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell,	Dwelt, <i>r.</i>	Dwelt, <i>r.</i>
Eat,	Ate, eat,	Eaten, or <i>eat</i> .
Fall, <i>Be-</i> ,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forbear,	Forbore,	Forborne.
Forget,	Forgot,	Forgotten, forgot.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Freight,	Freighted,	Fraught, <i>R.</i>
Get, <i>Be-</i> , <i>For-</i> ,	Got,	Got, gotten.
Gild,	Gilt, <i>R.</i>	Gilt, <i>R.</i>
Gird, <i>Be-</i> , <i>En-</i> ,	Girt, <i>R.</i>	Girt, <i>R.</i>
Give, <i>For-</i> , <i>Mis-</i> ,	Gave,	Given.
Go,	Went,	Gone.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Grave, <i>En-</i> ,	Graved,	Graven, R.
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang (<i>to take life</i> , R.),	Hung,	Hung.
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave,	Hove, R.	Hoven, R.
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewn, R.
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden, hid.
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.
Hold, <i>Be-, With-</i> ,	Held,	Held, <i>holden.</i>
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Kneel,	Knelt, <i>r.</i>	Knelt, <i>r.</i>
Knit,	Knit, <i>r.</i>	Knit, <i>r.</i>
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade, <i>to load</i> (<i>to dip</i> , R.),	Laded,	Laden, R.
Lay,	Laid,	Laid.
Lead, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Led,	Led.
Leap,	Lēapt, R.	Lēapt, R.
Learn,	Learnt, R.	Learnt, R.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie (<i>to recline</i>),	Lay,	Lain.
Lie (<i>to speak falsely</i>), R.	Lied,	Lied.
Light,	Lit, R.	Lit, R.
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant.
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mown, R.
Pass,	Past, R.	Past, R.
Pay, <i>Re-</i> ,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen (<i>to enclose</i>),	Pent, R.	Pent, R.
Prove,	Proved,	Proven, R.
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit,	Quit, <i>r.</i>	Quit, <i>r.</i>

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Rap,	Rapt, R.	Rapt, R.
Read,	Read,	Read.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid,	Rid,	Rid.
Ride,	Rode, <i>rid</i> ,	Ridden, <i>rid</i> .
Ring,	Rang, rung,	Rung.
Rise, <i>A-</i> ,	Rose,	Risen.
Rive,	Rived,	Riven, R.
Run,	Ran, <i>run</i> ,	Run.
Saw,	Sawed,	Sawn, R.
Say,	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seethe,	Sod, R.	Sodden, R.
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set, <i>Be-</i> ,	Set,	Set.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Shaped,	Shapen, R.
Shave,	Shaved,	Shaven, R.
Shear,	Sheared, (<i>shore, obs.</i>)	Shorn, R.
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine	Shone, R.	Shone, R.
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Show,	Showed,	Shown, R.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred. [shrunken.
Shrink,	Shrunk, shrank,	Shrunk or
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sang, sung,	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, <i>sank</i> ,	Sunk.
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide,	Slid,	Slidden, slid.
Sling,	Slung, <i>slang</i> ,	Slung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit,	Slit, <i>r.</i>	Slit, <i>r.</i>

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Smell,	Smelt, R.	Smelt, R.
Smite,	Smote,	Smitten, smit.
Sow (<i>to scatter</i>),	Sowed,	Sown, R.
Speak, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spoke, <i>spake</i> ,	Spoken.
Speed,	Sped, <i>r.</i>	Sped, <i>r.</i>
Spell,	Spelt, R.	Spelt, R.
Spend, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Spent,	Spent.
Spill,	Spilt, R.	Spilt, R.
Spin,	Spun, <i>span</i> ,	Spun.
Spit, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spit, <i>spat</i> ,	Spit.
Split,	Split, <i>r.</i>	Split, <i>r.</i>
Spoil,	Spoilt, R.	Spoilt, R.
Spread, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprang, sprung,	Sprung.
Stand, <i>With-</i> , &c.,	Stood,	Stood.
Stave,	Stove, R.	Stove, R.
Stay,	Staid, R.	Staid, R. *
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Strode, strid,	Stridden, strid.
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, stricken.
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.
Strow, or Strew, <i>Be-</i> ,	Strowed or <i>strewed</i> ,	Strown, strewn.
Swear,	Swore, <i>sware</i> ,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat, R.	Sweat, R.
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell,	Swelled,	Swollen, R.
Swim,	Swam, swum,	Swum.
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take, <i>Be-</i> , &c.	Took,	Taken.
Teach, <i>Mis-</i> , <i>Re-</i> ,	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore, <i>tare</i> ,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think, <i>Be-</i> ,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Throve, R.	Thriven, R.
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden, trod.
Wake,	Woke, R.	Woke, R.
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxen, R.
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven.
Wed,	Wed, R.	Wed, R.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.
Wet,	Wet, R.	Wet, R.
Whet,	Whet, R.	Whet, R.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound, R.	Wound.
Work,	Wrought, R.	Wrought, R.
Wring,	Wrung,	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written.

NOTE.—Many of the words in the list are irregular to the eye, not to the ear. The preference is one of orthography. Thus, *rapt* and *rapped* are pronounced alike; so, also, *drest*, *dressed*, *blest*, *blessed*, and others. Sometimes the difference in sound is that of *t* and its correlative *d*,—*dwelt*, *dwelled*, *spelt*, *spelled*. Besides the words in the list, there are a few forms which are seldom found except in the poets or in the older usages of the language. The following *very rarely* have a regular past and past participle:—*Grind*, *lay*, *pay*, *shake*, *slide*, *sweep*, *string*, *strive*, *wind*, *wring*.

Betide has (obs.) *betid*; *bide* has (obs.) *bided*; *creep* has (obs.) *crope*; *curse* has sometimes *curst*; *dive* has (obs.) *dove*, *diven*; *heat* has (colloquial) *hēat*; *plead* has (improperly) *plēad*; *reave* (itself little used) has *rest*, R.; *shear* has (obs.) *shore*; *show* has (obs.) *shew*, *shewn*; *strow*, *strew*, or (obs.) *straw*, has *strowed*, *strewed*, (obs.) *straived*, *strawn*, *strown*; but it may now be regarded as a regular verb,—*strew*, *strewed*, *strewed*.

313. MODEL FOR PARSING A VERB.

Anna had gone to walk.

Had gone (1) is a *verb*; a word which expresses being, action, or state.

Give the form for parsing a verb. Parse "Had gone," according to the model; also, "To walk."

- (2) *irregular*; it does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed*.
- (3) go, went, gone.
- (4) *intransitive*; it does not require an object to complete its meaning.
- (5) *common form*; it represents an act indefinitely, &c.
- (6) *indicative mode*; it asserts a thing as actual.
- (7) *past perfect tense*; it represents a past event completed in past time, formed by prefixing *had* to the past participle *gone*.
- (8) I had gone, thou hadst gone, he had gone, we had gone, you had gone, they had gone.
- (9) *third person, singular number*, because *Anna* is.
- (10) RULE IV.—The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

To walk is a regular, intransitive verb, active voice (*walk*, *walked*, *walked*), in the infinitive, present, and depends on *had gone*. RULE XVI.

1. Parse the verbs in the following examples:—

Blessed are the peace-makers.

Homage should be paid to the Most High.

The Magna Charta was granted to the English by King John.

The Mexicans were defeated by the Americans at Buena Vista.

If you wish, I will show you the Royal Oak where King Charles hid himself.

Cromwell's name will be long remembered.

Should you like to take a ride?

The village bells are ringing merrily.

Lives of great men all remind us

We can make our lives sublime,

And, departing, leave behind us

Footprints in the sands of Time.

LESSON LXIII.

ADVERBS.

314. An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, a participle, or another adverb.

EXAMPLES.

The stage started *early*.

He has undertaken a *very* difficult task.

The sun, shining *brightly*, awoke me.

How wildly the old man talked !

Instead of a single word, a phrase or proposition may be added to a verb, adjective, or adverb, to express an adverbial idea; as, " Speak *distinctly—with distinctness—so that you may be understood.*"

315. Adverbs may be divided into four general classes,—adverbs of **place**, of **time**, of **cause**, of **manner**.

Adverbs of **place** answer the questions *Where?* *Whither?* *Whence?* as, *here*, *there*, *above*, *below*, *yonder*, *somewhere*, *nowhere*, *back*, *upwards*, *downwards*, &c. &c.

Adverbs of **time** answer the questions *When?* *How long?* *How often?* as, *then*, *yesterday*, *always*, *ever*, *continually*, *often*, *frequently*, &c.

Adverbs of **cause** answer the questions *Why?* *Wherefore?* as, *why*, *wherefore*, *therefore*, *then*.

Adverbs of **manner** answer the questions *How?* as, *elegantly*, *faithfully*, *fairly*, &c.

What is an adverb? How may an adverbial idea be expressed? How are adverbs divided? What questions do adverbs of place answer? Adverbs of time? Adverbs of cause? Of manner?

With these last may be classed those which answer the question *How?* in respect to *quantity* or *quality*; as, *How much?* *How good?* such as, *too*, *very*, *greatly*, *chiefly*, &c.

Modal adverbs qualify the *assertion*, and not, like other adverbs, that which is asserted. They are *yea*, *yes*, *verily*, *truly*, *surely*, *undoubtedly*, *doubtless*, *forsooth*, *certainly*, *no*, *nay*, *not*, *possibly*, *probably*, *perhaps*, *peradventure*, *perchance*.

Conjunctive adverbs are those which give to a dependent clause an adverbial relation, and connect it with the verb, adjective, or adverb which it modifies; as, "I shall meet my friend *when* the boat arrives."

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

316. Many adverbs, like adjectives, admit of **comparison**.

Ex.—*Soon, sooner, soonest; bravely, more bravely, most bravely.*

The following adverbs are compared irregularly:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Ill or badly,	Worse,	Worst.
Little,	Less,	Least.
Far,	Farther,	Farthest.
Much,	More,	Most.
Well,	Better,	Best.

317. MODEL.

The stream flows most rapidly in the spring.

Rapidly (1) is an *adverb* of manner. Why?

What are classed with adverbs of manner? What are modal adverbs? What are conjunctive adverbs? Are adverbs compared? Compare *ill*, *little*, *far*, *much*, *well*. Parse "most rapidly," according to the model.

- (2) Compared (rapidly, more rapidly, most rapidly); superlative degree.
- (3) It limits *flows*. RULE IX.—“Adverbs are used to limit participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.”

I shall go before you arrive.

Before is a conjunctive adverb of time, and connects the clause “*before you arrive*” with the verb *shall go*.

RULE XV.

Parse the following adverbs:—

The Athenians were always seeking some new thing.

Man never loses the sentiment of his true good.

How novel, how grand the spectacle!

There, then, she had found a grave.

My mother died when I was very young.

Go, where glory waits thee.

Kate wept bitterly.

Where shall we find rest?

Isabella gladly welcomed the early violet.

Henry rises very early.

The prospect is extremely beautiful.

LESSON LXIV.

PREPOSITIONS.

318. A **preposition** is a word used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word.

Ex.—He sailed *upon* the ocean *in* a ship.

The preposition always shows a relation between two terms, an *antecedent* and a *subsequent*. The subsequent term is called the *object* of the

Parse “*before*.” What is a preposition? What is the object of a preposition?

preposition. The preposition and object united form a dependent element of the sentence, having the antecedent term as its principal. When the dependent element is joined to a noun, it is of the nature of an adjective; as, *The rays of the sun—Solar rays*. When joined to a verb, adjective, or adverb, the dependent phrase is usually of the nature of an adverb; as, *The case was conducted with skill—skillfully*.

319. The following is a list of the principal prepositions in use:—

aboard,	before,	for,	through,
about,	behind,	from,	throughout,
above,	below,	in, into,	till,
according to,	beneath,	'mid,	to,
across,	beside, or	'midst,	touching,
after,	besides,	notwithstanding,	toward, or
against,	between,	of,	towards,
along,	betwixt,	off,	under,
amid, or	beyond,	on,	underneath,
amidst,	by,	out of,	until,
among, or	concerning,	over,	unto,
amongst,	down,	past,	up,
around,	during,	regarding,	upon,
at,	ere,	respecting,	with,
athwart,	except,	round,	within,
bating,	excepting,	since,	without.

320. MODEL.

He has gone to New York.

- To (1) is a *preposition*; it is used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word.
- (2) It shows the relation between the noun *New York* and the verb *has gone*.

What do the preposition and its object form? What do they express when joined to a noun? When joined to a verb, adjective, or adverb? Give the list of prepositions.

(3) **RULE XIII.**—A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends.

Parse the following prepositions :—

Cornelia heard the birds sing in the morning.

The winds will come from the distant south.

I shall be queen of the May.

The hills are covered with a carpet of green.

We shall seek the early fruits in the sunny valley.

The love of money is the root of all evil.

From shore to shore it was free.

On the shore stands a lovely cottage.

LESSON LXV.

CONJUNCTIONS.

321. A **conjunction** is a word used to connect sentences, or the parts of sentences.

Ex.—The horse fell over the precipice, *but* the rider escaped. The horse *and* rider fell over the precipice.

A **pure** conjunction forms no part of the material or substance of the sentence. Its office is simply to unite the materials into a single structure. A **mixed** conjunction, or connective, forms a part of the sentence, and at the same time joins the parts together; as, “This is the pencil *which* (both *object* and *connective*) I lost.”

322. All **connectives** (whether pure conjunctions or conjunctive words) are divided into two classes, **coördinate** or **subordinate**.

323. **Coördinate** connectives join similar elements.

Ex.—*John and James* were disciples.

Here *John* and *James* are similar in construction, and have a common relation to the predicate.

324. **Subordinate** connectives are those which join dissimilar elements.

Ex.—I shall go *when* the stage arrives.

Here *when* joins the clause *when the stage arrives*, a dependent expression, to its principal, the verb *shall go*. It forms a part of the clause which it connects.

325. **Coördinate** connectives are always conjunctions, and may be divided into three classes:—

1. **Copulative**; as, *and*, *also*, *even*.
2. **Adversative**; as, *but*, *yet*, *still*, *however*.
3. **Alternative**; as, *or*, *nor*, *either*, *neither*.

326. Subordinate connectives are also divided into three classes:—

1. Those which connect **substantive** clauses; as, *that*, *that not*.
2. Those which connect **adjective** clauses; as, *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*.
3. Those which connect **adverbial** clauses; as—

PLACE.—*Where*, *whence*, *whither*, *wherever*, *whithersoever*.

TIME.—*When*, *while*, *before*, *ere*, *until*, *till*, *whenever*, *whensoever*.

CAUSE.—*For*, *because*, *as*, *since*, *lest*, *that*.

MANNER.—*How*, *so as*, *so that*.

327. MODEL.

Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers.

What do subordinate connectives join? How are coördinate connectives divided? How are subordinate connectives divided? Give examples of each kind.

And (1) is a *conjunction*; it is used to connect sentences, or the parts of a sentence.

(2) *coördinate*; it connects similar elements.

(3) It connects *Socrates* and *Plato*.

(4) RULE XI.—Coördinate conjunctions are used to join similar elements.

Either Lucia or Julia will come.

Either is a *coördinate conjunction* (alternative), used as correlative of *or*.

Or is a *coördinate conjunction* (alternative), and, with its correlative *either*, connects *Lucia* and *Julia*.—RULE XI.

1. Parse the following conjunctions :—

Clouds and darkness are round about him.

I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the barbarians.

Mordaunt neither spoke nor moved after his fall.

My punishment is greater than I can bear.

Thou art, and wert, and shalt be a great, life-giving, life-sustaining potentate.

Oh ! that those lips had language.

I hope that Edward will not be rash.

2. Write appropriate connectives in place of the dashes in the following :—

_____ you have nothing to say, say nothing.

_____ the cat is away, the mice will play.

I shall love the sea, _____ it is his grave.

Samuel _____ his brother came to town.

3. Let the learner write examples containing the different parts of speech, in any of their uses.

LESSON LXVI.

INTERJECTIONS.

328. An **interjection** is a word used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.

Ex.—*Alas!* I have chid away my friend.

329. The principal interjections are—

Hey, hurrah, huzza, aha, hah, ah, ho, lo, hallo, fie, pshaw, tush, alas, woe, alack, O, hist, hush, mum, &c.

330. MODEL.

O lightly, lightly tread.

O (1) is an *interjection*; it expresses some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.

(2) It has no grammatical relation with any other word.

(3) RULE X.—The nominative case independent, and the interjection, have no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

Parse the following interjections:—

Hark! they whisper, angels say,

“Sister spirit! come away!”

Wo for my vine-clad home!

O grave, where is thy victory!

Ah me! how sad my lot!

REM.—The teacher who has thus far kept up the constant practice of requiring written exercises and written corrections of the *actual errors* of his pupil has prepared the way for a successful course in Syntax.

What is an interjection?

SYNTAX.

LESSON LXVII.

SENTENCES.

331. **Syntax** treats of the construction of sentences.

332. A **sentence** is a thought expressed in words.

EXAMPLE.

Boy learned.

Here a **thought** is expressed, because something is declared of the boy; but it is *indefinite*. What boy? To answer this question, we must give him a *descriptive name*; that is, we must so describe him as to distinguish him from all other boys (16). To show that some particular boy is meant, we join *the*. Thus:—

The boy.

To distinguish him from all *large* boys, we join *little*. Thus:—

The little boy.

To distinguish him from *negligent* and *unfaithful* boys, we add a *descriptive expression*. Thus:—

The little boy who never neglected his duty.

Thus we have the *specific name* of this particular boy. But he *learned what?* And we have—

Learned his lessons.

To show *how* he learned them, we have—

Learned his lessons carefully.

To show *when* he did it, we have—

Learned his lessons carefully *during the time assigned for study*.

Thus, we have the *definite name* ending at *duty*, and the *definite statement* ending at *study*—

The-little-boy-who never neglected his duty—**learned**-his lessons-carefully-during the time assigned for study.

In saying this, we are supposed to *know* the boy, and to *know* what he did. If we had not *known* the boy, we might have *inquired*—

Who learned his lessons, &c.

Or, if a boy were idle, we might *command* him thus:—

Learn your lessons, &c.

Or, if he had learned his lessons very soon, we might have expressed surprise by *exclaiming* thus:—

Have you learned your lessons so soon !

R.E.M.—The teacher will find that any labor bestowed at this point in developing *definite sentences* from such *indefinite ones* as, man came, dog barked, thief ran, hero fought, &c., will be abundantly rewarded, in giving the pupil a clear idea of the *parts* of a sentence and their various *uses*. The aid of the *living teacher* is needed here. Make use of any *familiar subject*. Let the examples be both oral and written.

333. All sentences are either **declarative**, **interrogative**, **imperative**, or **exclamatory**.

334. A **declarative** sentence is one which declares something.

Ex.—The boy came.

Let the pupil compare this with “Did the boy come?” “Come, boy.”

335. An **interrogative** sentence is one which asks a question.

Ex.—Who broke my slate?

Compare this with “He broke my slate;” “Don’t break my slate.”

Name the four different kinds of sentences. What is a declarative sentence? An interrogative?

336. An **imperative** sentence is one which expresses a command.

Ex.—Put up your books.

Compare this with "Where are your books?" "Your books are on the floor."

337. An **exclamatory** sentence is one which contains an exclamation.

Ex.—How art thou fallen! How cold it is!

338. Exercise.

The teacher will find it an excellent plan to read short sentences to the class, requiring them to distinguish the different kinds by the ear.

1. Point out the different kinds of sentences in these examples, and construct or select others like them:—

The heat is oppressive.

How vivid is the lightning!

Believe ye that I can do this?

Children, obey your parents.

Shall the Turk still pollute the soil sanctified by the brightest genius?

2. Write five sentences of each kind, and change them from one kind to another.

LESSON LXVIII.

PROPOSITIONS.

339. Every sentence must contain at least one **principal** proposition.

Ex.—The ice melts. Can he read? Bring me a pencil.
O, how it rains! I shall remain, if he comes.

What is an imperative sentence? An exclamatory? What must every sentence contain?

Such a proposition as, "If he comes," is not a sentence, but only a part or element of a sentence. While every sentence *must* contain at least one independent or principal proposition, it *may* contain any number of others, either principal or subordinate. When propositions are thus combined, they are called *clauses*. A clause, therefore, is always a proposition but a proposition is not always a clause; it is sometimes an entire sentence.

340. A proposition is the combination of a subject and a predicate.

Ex.—The *ocean*—*roars*. Who—wrote it? Run—[thou]. How *fresh*—the *breeze*—is!

341. The subject represents that of which something is said or affirmed.

Ex.—The *lilies* fade. What do you want? Give [you] me your name. What a noise *he* makes!

342. The predicate represents that which is said or affirmed of the subject.

Ex.—The waves *dash*. What have you *found*? Feed my sheep. What! have you *lost* that also?

The predicate is sometimes that which is *denied* of the subject; as, "The door is *not* shut." But to deny is only to affirm a negative. In general, *affirm* is here used to apply to every kind of proposition, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory, as well as declarative.

343. The subject usually represents some **object**, and the predicate some **attribute** of that object.

Attribute means that which *belongs to* or *pertains to* an object, expressing some *action*, *quality*, *class*, *state*, or *condition* of it. Since in every proposition some one of these must be **affirmed**, that which is affirmed is called the *attribute of the proposition*; and the verb which affirms it, thereby connecting it with the subject, is called the *copula*. When an

What is said of clauses? What is a proposition? What is the subject? What is the predicate? In what sense is the word "affirm" here used? What do the subject and predicate usually represent?

attribute is **assumed** of the subject, that is, used without assertion, as if taken for granted, it is the *attributive or adjective element of the proposition*.

Ex.—The *apple* is *sweet*. The wind *blows*.

344. Attributes are—

1. Those which denote the *class* of objects; as, *beast*, *bird*, *tree*. The lion is a *beast*. The eagle is a *bird*.
2. Those which denote the *qualities* of objects; as, *good*, *old*, *sweet*. The fruit is *good*. The fence is *old*.
3. Those which denote the *actions* of objects; as, *run*, *crawl*, *fly*. Boys *run*. Serpents *crawl*.
4. Those which denote some *state*, *condition*, or *circumstance* of an object; as, *first*, *over*, *in health*. He is *first*. The rain is *over*. They are *in health*.

345. An attribute may be represented as joined to an object in two ways:—

1. It may be **assumed** of it; as, *blue sky*, *rough sea*, *poisonous reptiles*.
2. It may be **predicated** of it; as, The *sky* is *blue*; the *sea* is *rough*; *reptiles* are *poisonous*.

The teacher will easily fix this distinction in the mind of the pupil by taking any familiar thing, as a *globe*, and calling upon him to name any attributes of it, as *round*, *smooth*, *rough*, *large*, *small*, &c., requiring him at the same time to *affirm* each; thus: The globe is *round*,—the globe is *smooth*,—the globe is *large*, &c.; and then to *assume* each; thus: The *round* globe, the *smooth* globe, &c. This exercise, *varied* and *repeated*, will make this fundamental idea entirely familiar.

346. When an attribute is assumed of an object, it is said to **modify** or **limit** it (**18**).

347. When an attribute is predicated of an object, the words form a **proposition**.

How many kinds of attributes are there? In how many ways may an attribute be joined to an object? When the attribute is predicated, what is formed? What is said when the attribute is assumed?

The predicate consists of two parts,—some form of the verb “to be,” called the *copula*, and the *attribute*; as, “The fruit *is ripe*.” These two parts may be combined in one word; the predicate is then always a verb, which is itself equivalent to the copula and attribute; as, “The winds *roar*” = *are roaring*. So that the predicate is either a verb, or it contains a verb. See Lesson IX.

348. Exercise.

1. Name any objects which contain these qualities:—
Yellow, smooth, cold, pure, clear, wild, heavy.

Assume and then predicate them. Tell which examples form propositions, and which contain merely a limited noun.

2. Name any qualities which belong to these objects:—
Tree, brook, gold, clouds, sponge, rose.

Assume and then predicate, as above.

3. Point to any five *objects* which you can see, and tell the *class* to which they belong, remembering that the *common name* of an object indicates its class. (See Lesson XV.) Assume and predicate each. Thus:—

This object, a *pencil*. This object *is a pencil*. Charles, a *scholar*. Charles *is a scholar*.

4. Name any appropriate actions for the following objects:—

Birds, fishes, children, serpents, dogs.

Assume and predicate these actions of appropriate objects:—

Fly, slide, weave, run, play, study, drive.

5. Which of the following combinations are propositions? Which are not? Name the *subjects*. Name the *limited nouns*.

Of how many parts does the predicate consist? What remark upon the predicate when these two parts are combined?

The men are idle.	A white horse.
The setting sun.	The snow is falling.
The stars twinkle.	Trees falling.
Pale ink.	Ice melts.

6. Change these last examples by predicating the assumed and assuming the predicated attributes; then name the *subjects* and the *limited nouns*.

7. Analyze the following examples. Write and analyze as many more of your own. See Model below.

- The robin sings.
- The weather is cold.
- The house was built.
- Who brought the news?
- Where is my pen?
- Read the Morning Journal.
- The story was false.

Model.—“The robin sings” is a proposition (also a sentence, 339), because it is the combination of a subject and a predicate (340).

The robin is the subject; it represents that of which something is affirmed.

Sings . . . is the predicate; it represents what is affirmed.

Model.—“The wild ox of the prairie” is not a sentence, because no attribute is predicated of ox; but, by assuming attributes,

Ox is limited (1) by *wild* (344, 2), distinguishing it from the *tamed* or *domesticated* ox; (2) by *of the prairie* (344, 4), denoting the *place* where it is found. Thus we have a *descriptive name* of the ox, distinguishing it from all others. See 332, Ex.

These descriptive names, by pointing out individual objects, supply the want of proper nouns (176).

LESSON LXIX.

CLASSES OF PROPOSITIONS AND SENTENCES.

349. **Propositions** are divided into two classes,—*principal* and *subordinate*.

350. A **principal** proposition contains the principal or leading assertion: it is that on which the subordinate depends.

Ex.—When spring comes, the flowers will bloom.

Here, “the flowers will bloom” is the principal proposition, because it will make sense by itself. Not so with “when spring comes.” Try every proposition by this test: Will it make sense when taken alone?

351. A **subordinate** proposition is one which, by means of a subordinate connective, depends upon some part of the principal proposition.

Ex.—When spring comes, the flowers will bloom.

“When spring comes” does not make sense by itself; it *depends upon* or is *subordinate to* “will bloom.” Take away the subordinate connective *when*, and it will make sense alone.

352. Exercise.

I. Separate the following sentences into their propositions, and tell which are principal and which are subordinate:—

The vessel which he has so long expected has arrived.

Peter the Hermit, who preached the first crusade, was a native of Amiens, in France.

I thought that Eugenia was sincere.

While I was musing, the fire burned.

Into how many classes are propositions divided? What is a principal proposition? What is a subordinate proposition?

I will write when my mother has arrived.

I shall not sail for Europe until the winter has passed.

Norman has lost the watch which his father sent him.

Where thou goest, I will go.

Model.—The vessel which he has so long expected has arrived.

This sentence contains two propositions, a *principal* and a *subordinate*. “The vessel has arrived” is the *principal*; it contains the leading assertion, and makes sense alone. “Which he has so long expected” is the *subordinate*,—because, like an adjective, it depends upon “vessel,” by means of the connective “which;” it does not make sense alone.

353. Propositions of the same kind, that is, both principal or both subordinate, are said to be **similar**; those of different kinds are said to be **dissimilar**.

354. A **simple** sentence contains but one proposition.

Ex.—The wind blows.

Here observe *one* principal proposition. Is “if you come” a sentence? Why? Is it a *proposition*? Is it a *clause*? See 339, Rem.

355. A **complex** sentence contains at least two propositions, one of which must be principal and the rest subordinate.

Ex.—When the wind blows, the trees bend.

Here observe that “the trees bend” would make sense alone, and that “when the wind blows” would not, and that both together make the sentence.

What are similar propositions? Dissimilar? What does a simple sentence contain? A complex?

356. A **compound** sentence contains at least two principal propositions.

Ex.—The winds blow and the trees bend.

Here either clause makes sense alone; yet both together make the sentence. In this and the preceding, mark the *clauses*.

A complex sentence *must* have dissimilar propositions; it *may* also have two similar *subordinate* propositions; as, “*I knew where he was, and when he left.*” A compound sentence *must* have two similar *principal* propositions; it may also have with these subordinate propositions; as, “**The wicked flee when no man pursueth**; but **the righteous are bold as a lion [is].**”

357. Exercise.

1. Tell which sentences in the following exercise are simple, which are complex, and which are compound:—

The gathering darkness of night comes on.

If it should storm, the lecture will be postponed.

Herman left the home of his childhood, and he returned no more.

The waters dance gayly along.

The dews of night began to fall, and the moon silvered the ruined abbey.

The scenes which we loved in childhood are still dear to us.

2. Write six examples illustrating the different kinds of sentences.

Model.—“Man is mortal” is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Would “*since man is mortal*” be a simple sentence?

“The clouds were gathering as we reached the shore” is a complex sentence, because it contains two propositions, only one of which is principal. Point out the

principal and the subordinate. What is the connective? How can you tell which clause is the principal and which is subordinate? Does either alone form the sentence? Would the second clause be subordinate if the connective were taken away?

"The sun went down in its glory, and the twilight began to fade from the western sky," is a compound sentence; it contains two similar propositions, both of which are principal. How many clauses has it? Would both be principal if the connective were taken away? How, then, does this connective differ from the preceding (322)?

LESSON LXX.

ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

358. The **elements** of a sentence are its component parts, each standing for an *idea* and its *relation*.

Ex.—The shepherd —— gave —— the alarm —— when he discovered the approach of the wolf.

NOTE.—*Shepherd*, in this example, becomes an element only when it is put in relation to *gave*. So *gave* becomes an element by virtue of its relation to *shepherd*; and so of the others. The learner should bear in mind that a *thought* is analyzed when separated into its several *ideas*; a *sentence* is analyzed when separated into the *expressions* for those ideas. Thus, in the sentence above, we have four principal ideas and the same number of expressions. *Who gave?* *The shepherd.* *What did the shepherd do?* *Gave.* *What did he give?* *The alarm.* *When did he give it?* *When he discovered the approach of the wolf.* The learner should unite in one group *all* the words which express the idea.

359. All elements are divided, according to

their *rank* or *relation* to each other, into **principal** and **subordinate**; and when two of the same kind are united, they are **coördinate** with each other.

Thus, every sentence *must* have a subject and a predicate: hence these two are *principal*; as, "Pupils study." A sentence *may* also have an adjective element, an objective element, and an adverbial element. These three depend upon and modify the other two: hence they are *subordinate*; as, "*Faithful* — **pupils** — **study** — *grammar* — *carefully*." It will be seen that a sentence may contain five distinct elements, two principal and three subordinate.

This distinction between the *principal* and the *subordinate* parts of a sentence is similar to that which has just been made in propositions. "*Faithful*" does not make sense alone, but when joined to "*pupils*" as its *principal*, both together show a limited number of pupils. (See Rule II., below.) In the same manner "*grammar*" and "*carefully*" are subordinate to "*study*," and limit it.

360. The influence which one element has over another in construction may be expressed by the following rules:—

RULE I.—The **principal element** always controls or governs the subordinate.

That is, it causes the subordinate either to *agree* with itself, or to take some particular *case*, *mode*, or *tense*. The former is called *agreement*; the latter, *government*. Thus, the adjective implying number agrees in *number* with the noun; as, "*These* (not *this*) books;" the verb agrees in *number* and *person* with the subject; as, "*I walk*;" the

How are elements divided according to their rank or relation? What are coördinate elements? What are the principal elements of a sentence? Give Rule I. How does the principal element control the subordinate?

predicate noun or pronoun agrees in *case* with the subject; as, "*I am he.*" So also the noun in apposition. The government of the superior term is effected either *directly*, as, "*Solomon's temple,*"—or by means of a *connective*; as, "*The temple of Solomon.*" So also of the *objective* case, "*We saw him;*" "*We looked at him.*" So of the subjunctive mode: "*Should it rain, I shall not go;*" "*If it should rain, I shall not go.*"

RULE II.—The subordinate element always modifies or limits the principal.

That is, it restricts a *general* to a *particular application*; as, "*The people (not all people, but those) of Maine*" (**348**, 7).

RULE III.—Coordinate elements neither govern nor modify each other.

That is, the one in no way affects the *case, mode, tense, number, person, agreement, or application* of the other; as, "*He informed you and me.*" Here, *me* is not in the objective because it is coördinate with *you*, but because it is the direct object of *informed*.

These three general principles involve nearly all the particular *rules of Syntax*.

361. All elements are divided, according to their *use* as a whole, into **substantive, adjective, and adverbial**.

EXAMPLES.

	WORDS.	PHRASES.	CLAUSES.
<i>Substantive.</i>	<i>Song.</i>	<i>To sing.</i>	<i>That one should sing.</i>
<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Wise man.</i>	<i>Man of wisdom.</i>	<i>Man who is wise.</i>
<i>Adverbial.</i>	<i>Rising early.</i>	<i>At sunrise.</i>	<i>When the sun rises.</i>

Give Rule II. Rule III. How are all elements divided according to their nature and use? Give the examples.

To classify elements according to their *use* as a whole, the learner has only to ask, in case of a word, what part of speech it *is*; and in case of a group of words, what part of speech it *would be* if the same idea were expressed by one word.

362. Exercise.

Point out the different kinds of elements in these examples, and tell which are principal and which are subordinate.

Clinton will go to the sea-side to-morrow.

The splashing surf is refreshing.

Yesterday, the word of Cæsar might have stood against the world.

Times of greatest calamity and confusion have been productive of the greatest minds.

The hall of the mansion is spacious.

The lawn in front extends to the sea.

The restless waves over which Sir William Pepperell sought fortune, still glitter in the sunbeams.

As we ascend the staircase, paintings of angels' heads decorate the hall window.

Error is a hardy plant; it flourisheth in every soil.

Few and precious are the words which the lips of Wisdom utter.

Model.—"Clinton will go to the sea-side to-morrow" is a simple sentence (354). The principal elements are the subject, *Clinton*, and the predicate, *will go* (359). The subordinate elements are the adverbial element of *place*, *to the sea-side*, which limits *will go* (360, Rule II.), and the adverbial element of *time*, *to-day*, which also limits *will go*.

LESSON LXXI.

ELEMENTS, CONTINUED.

363. Elements are divided, according to their *form*, into the **first**, **second**, and **third** classes.

364. They are either **words**, **phrases**, or **clauses**.

Thus, in the sentence, "*The—sun—shines—brightly,*" the elements (358, NOTE) are single words; in the sentence, "*The—streets—of the city—were filled—with snow,*" the elements in italics are phrases; in the example, "*The land—which lies near the river is very fertile,*" the element in italics is a clause.

A simple element of the first class is a *single word*, representing both an idea and its relation; as, "Good — boys — study — grammar — carefully." Here each word represents not only a distinct idea, but also its relation to another idea.

A simple element of the second class is a *phrase* consisting of two words, one representing an idea, and the other its relation; as "*John lives — in hope.*" Here, if we leave out *in*, the *relation* will not be represented: "*John lives hope;*" if we leave out *hope*, the *idea* will be wanting: "*John lives in.*" Both must be represented by separate words, in the simplest possible form of the element. Hence the difference between an element of the first and an element of the second class. Simple elements of the second class are usually the *infinitive*, or the *preposition* and its *object* taken together. The predicate, when composed of the *copula* and the *attribute*, is properly an element of the second class.

How are elements divided according to their form? What is a simple element of the first class? What is a simple element of the second class? What are they usually?

Any two united words form a *phrase*; as, *very strongly, wise counsels*; but in these examples both words represent *ideas*. In an element of the second class *one* word stands for an idea and the other for its relation; as, *in haste, with joy*.

A simple element of the third class is a *clause* consisting of a *proposition* to represent an idea, and a *connective* to show its relation; as, "I know —— that he went." Compare this with the two preceding.

365. Exercise.

1. Classify the elements in the following examples:—

James walked through the garden.

Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.

A peace which consults the good of both parties is the surest, because both parties are interested in its preservation.

The army marched slowly forward.

The Greeks took Troy by stratagem.

Honesty is the best policy.

2. Write sentences containing words, phrases, and clauses as elements.

Model.—"We—were walking—in the garden—as the sun sank below the western horizon."

This is a complex sentence (355). Read and distinguish the clauses.

We is the subject (341); it is a *single word*.

Were walking is the predicate (342); it is a *phrase* (364)—not usually separated, though *were* expresses the *relation* (predicate relation) and *walking* the *idea* of action.

In the garden is a *phrase*,—an adverbial element, denoting the place of walking; it has the pre-

position *in* to connect and show the relation, and *garden*—the object—to show the idea of place. It is subordinate to *were walking*, and limits its meaning (360, Rule II.).

As the sun sank below the western horizon is a clause (364 and 351), denoting the time of walking, and is subordinate to and limits (360, Rule II.) *were walking*, having *as* to connect and show the relation, and the preposition to show the *idea*.

LESSON LXXII.

366. Elements are divided, according to their *state* or *condition*, into **simple**, **complex**, or **compound**.

A **simple** element is a single expression for an idea and its relation, without modification or addition. It may be either a word, a phrase, or a clause; as, "We left —— early—at dawn—as day dawned."

The unmodified subject is called the *simple* or *grammatical* subject; the unmodified predicate, the *simple* or *grammatical* predicate; and so of all the other elements.

A **complex** element is a simple element **modified** by one or more elements subordinate to it. It is of the first, the second, or the third class when the simple element, called its *basis*, is of the first, the second, or the third class; as, "We left —— very early—at early dawn—as day first dawned in the east." (Compare these examples with the preceding.)

How are elements divided according to their state or condition? What is a simple element? What is the simple subject? Predicate? What is a complex element?

The modified subject is called the *complex* or *logical* subject; and so of all other elements.

A **compound** element is the union of two or more coördinate, simple, or complex elements. The component parts may be either of the first, the second, or the third class; as, "We are employed—*early and late*." "We are employed—at *noon and at night*." "We were travelling—*when the wind was blowing furiously, and when the storm was beating against our carriage*."

The coördinate subjects taken together are called the *compound* subject; and so of all the other elements.

367. Exercise.

Classify the following elements:—

The dying king tried every remedy in vain.

Clouds and darkness are round about him.

Righteousness and truth are the habitation of his throne.

Eva accepted the invitation with pleasure.

With trembling limbs and faltering steps, he departed from his desolate home.

The lever which moves the world of mind is the printing-press.

We closed the dim and lifeless eye,

We smoothed the parted hair,

And decked the sleeping form with flowers;

But no bright soul was there.

GENERAL REMARK.—It may not be best, in the practical analysis of sentences for this Intermediate Course (see Rem., p. 54), to introduce all the distinctions of the elements. The fundamental requisite is to recognize the subject, the predicate, and the words or groups of words which modify each, and to point out carefully the limiting effect of each. Such an analysis is sufficient to determine the prominent parts of the sentence.

What is the modified subject called? What is a compound element?
What is the compound subject?

But for the purpose of noting the different *forms* of expression which pervade the language, the more minute distinctions of *words*, *phrases*, and *clauses*, with their varieties, must be made. For a full development, see English Grammar, or Analysis of Sentences.

Model.—“When we took our leave, the evening star was setting in the west.”

This is a complex sentence (**355**), declarative (**334**). The principal proposition (**350**) is “the evening star was setting in the west;” the subordinate proposition (**351**) is “when we took our leave.”

Star . . . is the subject (**341**) of the principal proposition (and hence of the whole sentence).

Was setting is the predicate (**342**). The subject is limited by

The and **evening**,—*the* showing that some particular star is meant, and *evening* showing the time of its appearance.

The predicate is limited by the phrase **In the west**, showing *where* it was setting; also, by the clause

When we took our leave, showing *when* it was setting.

REM.—The teacher may require the pupil to point out the elements more minutely, after this kind of general analysis, or not, as he chooses. For examples of a closer analysis, see Models under the Rules, below.

LESSON LXXIII.

DEFINITIONS AND RULES.

368. To construct a sentence, is to combine its several elements.

369. To analyze a sentence, is to separate it into its several elements.

370. To **classify** sentences, is to tell whether they are (1) *simple, complex, or compound*; (2) *declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory*.

371. To **transform** a sentence, is to change its form, either by *altering, transposing, suppressing, or supplying* any of its elements, without materially changing the meaning.

372. To **reconstruct** a sentence, is to express the same thought in other words.

373. To **parse** a sentence, is to name the class (parts of speech) of each of its words, and to give their modifications, relations, agreement, or government, and the rules for their construction.

374. To **correct** a sentence, is to alter it so as to make it conform to the rules of construction.

375. **A Rule of Construction** is a statement of the law which governs the **form** and the **use** of a word in construction. The following are the principal rules:—

RULE I.—A noun or a pronoun used as the **subject** of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

RULE II.—A noun or a pronoun used as the **attribute** of a proposition after the finite verb *to be*, or any intransitive or passive verb, must be in the nominative case.

RULE III.—A **pronoun** must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

What is it to classify sentences? To transform a sentence? To reconstruct it? To parse it? What is it to correct a sentence? Give Rule I. Rule II. Rule III.

RULE IV.—The **verb** must agree with its subject in number and person.

RULE V.—An adjective or a participle must **belong** to some noun or pronoun; as, “The *guilty* man;” “The man was *guilty*.” Or, more specifically,—

(1.) An adjective or a participle used as the **attribute** of a proposition after the verb *to be*, or any intransitive or passive verb, belongs to the subject; as, “The tree is *tall*;” “To see the sun is *pleasant*;” “Where the funds will be obtained is *doubtful*.”

(2.) An adjective or a participle used to **limit** or **qualify** a noun, belongs to the noun which it modifies; as, “*An upright* judge,” “*Five boxes*,” “*The good old* man.”

RULE VI.—A noun or a pronoun used to **explain** or **identify** another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case.

RULE VII.—A noun or a pronoun used to limit another noun, by denoting **possession**, must be in the possessive case.

RULE VIII.—A noun or a pronoun used as the **object** of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the objective case.

RULE IX.—**Adverbs** are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

RULE X.—The nominative case **independent**, and the **interjection**, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

RULE XI.—**Coördinate** conjunctions are used to connect similar elements.

RULE XII.—When a verb or a pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction,—

(1.) If it agrees with them taken **conjointly**, it must be in the *plural number*.

(2.) But if it agrees with them taken **separately**, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(3.) If it agrees with **one**, and **not the other**, it must take the number of that one.

RULE XIII.—A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends.

RULE XIV.—A noun or a pronoun used as the **object** of a preposition, must be in the objective case.

RULE XV.—**Subordinate** connectives are used to join dissimilar elements.

RULE XVI.—The **infinitive** has the construction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the *verb*, and when dependent is governed by the word which it limits.

RULE XVII.—**Participles** have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs*.

LESSON LXXIV.

SIMPLE SENTENCES—ELEMENTS OF THE FIRST CLASS—WORDS.

376. An element of the first class is a *single word*.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SUBJECT.

377. The subject is always put in construction with the predicate, and by the following rule:—

RULE I.—A noun or a pronoun used as the **subject** of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

Ex.—*Cæsar* conquered Gaul.

REM.—This rule is universal. Whatever is used as the subject, whether a letter, a syllable, a phrase, or a clause, is of the nature of a noun, and must be in the nominative case.

378. Caution and Exercises.

379. CAUTION.—*Never use the objective as the subject of a finite verb.* Say, “*I did it,*”—not “*Me did it.*”

I. CONSTRUCTION.—Construct five other sentences like any of the following in (1), (2), (5), or (6):—

(1.) (*Subject and predicate expressed.*) Time flies. She reads. Ida walks. Jesus wept. Kings reign. Fruit ripens. I live.

(2.) (*Subject understood.*) Come. Study. Awake. Arise. Go. See. Return. Behold.

Model.—“Come” is a sentence; its subject is understood.

I supply “*thou,*” “*you,*” or “*ye.*” Thus, “Come thou.”

(3.) (*Subject wanting.*) — buzz. — study. — drink. — play. — frisk.

Model.—“Buzz” is not a sentence; it has no subject.

I add “bees.” Thus, “Bees buzz.”

(4.) (*Parts to be combined.*) Wind roar; he speak; she sit; it snow.

5. (*Something inquired for.*) Who whistles? Where is he? Which is lost? When will you come?

6. (*An exclamation.*) How it rains! Let me alone! What! have you come!

Model.—“Wind roar” is not a sentence; the parts

are not combined. I change "wind" to "winds." Thus, "Winds roar."

2. ANALYSIS.—Analyze the preceding sentences.

Model.—"Time flies" is a sentence; it is a thought expressed in words. "Time" is the subject; it is that of which something is affirmed. "Flies" is the predicate; it is that which is affirmed of the subject.

3. PARSING.—Parse the subjects in the preceding examples. See for a model 207.

4. CLASSIFICATION.—Classify (1) the preceding *s*entences; (2) their *e*lements.

Thus, "Time flies" is a simple, declarative sentence; *simple*, it contains but one proposition; *declarative*, it declares something. "Come" is a simple, imperative sentence. Why? The subject and predicate in each is an element of the first class, each being a *single word* expressing an idea and its relation.

NOTE.—Classification, analysis, and parsing may be combined. Thus, "Time flies" is a simple, declarative sentence. "Time" is the subject, and "flies" is the predicate; both elements of the first class. "Time" is a common noun, &c.

5. TRANSFORMATION.—Transform the preceding sentences.

(1.) Change them to interrogative. Thus, "Does time fly?"

(2.) Change them to imperative, and point out the *transpositions*. Thus, "Fly thou, time."

(3.) Change them to exclamatory. "How time flies!"

(4.) In (2), suppress the *subject* and *nominative independent*. Thus, "Fly."

(5.) Change the number, person, and gender (when it can be done) of the subjects, and explain the consequent changes in the predicate. Substitute pronouns for each of the subject-nouns, and explain their agreement by Rule III.

6. CORRECTION.—Correct by the Caution the following examples, and find any similar ones on pages 52 and 53:—

Claud and me are going together. Him that is studious will improve. Lionel will find the lost lamb sooner than me. Who told you that story? Him and her. I knew it as well as her. Them are the books I wanted. Did they say whom was coming?

Model.—“Claud and me are going together” is incorrect, because the objective pronoun *me* is made the subject of the verb “are going.” It should be (see Caution) “Claud and I are going together.”

Correct any improper expressions which you have heard to-day.

LESSON LXXV.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE PREDICATE.

380. The predicate is put in construction with the subject by one of the following rules:—

RULE II.—A noun or a pronoun used as the **attribute** of a proposition after the finite verb “to be,” or any intransitive or passive verb, must be in the nominative case.

Ex.—It is *he*; they are *philosophers*.

RULE V. SPECIFIC RULE. (I.)

An adjective used as the **attribute** of a proposition after the finite verb “to be,” or any intransitive or passive verb, belongs to the subject.

Ex.—The war was *sanguinary*.

RULE IV.—The **verb** must agree with its subject in number and person.

Ex.—I *am*; thou *art sitting*.

381. Rule II.—Caution and Exercises.

382. CAUTION.—Never use the objective as the attribute. Say, “It is *I*,”—not “It is *me*. ”

1. Construct five other examples like the following (in 1), and fill the blanks:—

(1.) (*Sub. and pred. expressed.*) Gold is a metal. It is she. It is I. Panama is an isthmus.

(2.) (*Subject wanting.*) — is an island. — is he. — is a merchant.

(3.) (*Attribute wanting.*) Boston is a —. Borneo is an —. It is —.

(4.) (*Copula wanting.*) George — my brother. Paul — an apostle. Nero — a tyrant.

2. Analyze, classify, and parse the foregoing sentences.

Model.—“Gold is a metal” is a simple, declarative sentence. Why? “Gold” is the subject, and “is a metal” is the predicate. Why? “Is” is the *copula*, and “metal” is the *attribute*.* “Gold” is a common noun, &c. (Model, p. 74.) “Is” is an irregular intransitive verb, &c. (Model, p. 121.) “Metal” is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case. It is used as the *attribute* after “is,” according to Rule II.

3. Transform any of the foregoing examples, as in the previous Lesson.

Give Rule IV. The caution under Rule II.

* The predicate, when formed of the copula and attribute, is properly an element of the second class, being a *phrase*. It is most conveniently discussed here, but will be found in its proper place hereafter.

4. Correct the following examples:—

It is me. Whom is it? It is him. Whom do you think it is? It is not them.

383. Rule V.—Specific Rule (I.)—Exercise.

1. Construct five other examples like the following:—

Delays are dangerous. George was lame. They will be rich. He might have been deceitful. We were successful. Who was merciful? Be active. Will they be peaceful? Be content.

NOTE.—Let the teacher, if he deems it necessary, add other examples with the subject, attribute, or copula wanting. Let the pupils be required to use adjectives as attributes in propositions of their own.

2. Analyze, classify, and parse the preceding examples:—

Model.—“Be active” is a simple, imperative sentence.

Why? “Thou” understood is the subject. “Why?

“Be active” is the predicate, of which “be” is the *copula* and “active” the *attribute*. “Be” is an irregular, intransitive verb, imperative mode, present tense, second person singular, and agrees with “thou,” understood. (Rule IV.) “Active” is an adjective used as the attribute after “be,” and belongs to “thou,” understood. (Rule V.) Special Rule (1), “An adjective used as the attribute,” &c.

3. Transform any of the foregoing examples as in the previous Lesson.

384. Rule IV.—Cautions and Exercises.

385. CAUTION I.—*Avoid the use of a singular verb with a plural subject, or a plural verb with a singular subject.*

Say, "Where *were* you?"—not "Where *was* you?" "Each of his brothers *was* well,"—not "Each *were* well."

386. CAUTION II.—*Be careful not to use the wrong verb, as, set for sit; lay for lie; come for go; nor the wrong form, as, done for did; wrote for written; nor the wrong tense, as, see for saw; give for gave; nor improper contractions, as, ain't for are not.*

1. Construct five other examples like the following:—

Water flows. Kings have reigned. Vice degrades. Will winter come? Read. James may have written. Isabel sings. Begone, wretch!

NOTE.—Let the teacher require other examples, if necessary, giving the subjects, and leaving the predicates blank, &c. See previous lessons.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the preceding examples; also, those you have constructed.

NOTE.—For *models*, see the preceding.

3. Transform the preceding sentences. Change the *modes, tenses, and forms* of the verbs. Give a *synopsis* of the verbs.

4. Correct (Caution I.) the following examples:—

There's ten of us going. Was you sheltered from the rain? Henry need not be so positive. Randolph dare not do wrong. Circumstances alters cases. A number of spectators were already there. The captain, with all the crew, were lost.

5. Correct (Caution II.) the following examples:—

I seen Peter when he done it. Amanda had broke my pencil. Tell the boys to set still. The cat laid down by the fire. I didn't meant to done it. Ella is going to lay down. Augustus has wrote his letter. Ain't it queer! Ain't they ever going home? Eliza knowed her spelling lesson better than Joseph.

LESSON LXXVI.

AGREEMENT AND CONSTRUCTION OF THE PRONOUN.

The *agreement* of the pronoun is according to the following rule:—

RULE III.—A **pronoun** must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

Its *construction*, like that of the noun, depends upon its *relation* in the sentence; it may be in the *nominative*, the *possessive*, or the *objective* case.

REM. 1.—The personal pronoun **it** is often used without an antecedent.

Ex.—*It* rains; *it* thunders.

Sometimes **it** represents an object indefinitely, in order to predicate it by *name*.

Ex.—*It* is a peony; *it* is Charles.

Sometimes **it** is used as an *expletive* (to fill a vacancy).

Ex.—Come trip *it* as you go.

REM. 2.—Two rules should be given in parsing a personal pronoun, one for its *agreement*, and one for its *construction*. In case of a relative pronoun, we must add Rule XV. to show its *connection*, and for *what*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*, Rule V. to explain its value as an adjective.

REM. 3.—The relative pronoun has a *restrictive* and an *explanatory* use; the former, when like an adjective it *limits* the meaning of the antecedent; the latter, when it explains or adds some circumstance connected with it.

Ex.—(*Restrictive.*) Those *who* are industrious and frugal will be rewarded. (*Explanatory.*) He gave me a book, *which* he requested me to read.

REM. 4.—*What*, *whatever*, and other compound relatives, generally, have a *double construction*; they represent both the antecedent and the relative. For a more full discussion of these, see English Grammar, p. 217.

Cautions and Exercises.

CAUTION I.—*Avoid the use of a noun and a pronoun as*

subject or object of the same verb, unless great emphasis is required.

Say, "The boy did it,"—not "The boy he did it."

CAUTION II.—*Avoid the use of a plural pronoun having a singular antecedent.*

Say, "Let every one attend to *his* work,"—not "*their* work."

CAUTION III.—*Avoid the use of **who** when speaking of animals and inanimate objects, and of **which** when speaking of persons.*

Say, "The hawk *which* caught the jay,"—not "*who* caught." "The carpenter *who* built the house,"—not "*which* built."

CAUTION IV.—*Avoid the use of the interrogative **who** when the construction requires **whom**.*

Say, "*Whom* did you see?"—not "*Who* did you see?"

1. Construct five examples containing a *personal pronoun*, five containing a *simple relative*, five containing a *compound relative*, and five containing an *interrogative*; and parse the pronouns in the following examples.

(1.) The plums are ripe; they are delicious.

(2.) The trout which Fisher caught weighed one pound.

(3.) He is welcome to what information he has obtained.

(4.) Who brought the news last evening?

Model.—"She was grateful for what attentions she received" is a complex, declarative sentence, of which "she" is the subject of the principal clause, and consequently of the sentence, and "was grateful" is the predicate. "Was grateful" is limited by the expression "for what attentions she received," which shows for what she was grateful. The expression contains

two parts,—“for attentions” and “what she received.” “Attentions” is governed by “for,” and limited by “what” = *those*, and by “what she received” = *which she received*. The first use of what is as *adjective*, limiting “attentions,” by Rule V. The second is as *relative*, governed by “received,” Rule VIII. It agrees with “attentions” in person, number, and gender, Rule III.; it connects the clause “what she received” to “attentions,” Rule XV.

2. Correct by the Cautions the following examples:—

I tell you, Harry he came rushing into the room. Mary, poor girl, she arrived an hour too late. If any one has borrowed my slate, I wish they would return it. Some one has been here, for they left the door open. The horse who was killed by lightning belonged to Mr. Jones, which bought him only the day before. Who did you invite to the party? Who will he take as a companion?

3. Construct three complex sentences containing relative pronouns.

Can there be a *relative* pronoun in a *simple sentence*? Can there be a conjunctive adverb in a *simple sentence*?

LESSON LXXVII.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

387. The adjective element is put in construction with a noun or a pronoun.

NOTE.—The adjective element of the sentence is put in construction with the subject.

388. When the adjective element is an adjective, it is subject to the following rule:—

SPECIFIC RULE (2).

(See Rule V.) An adjective or a participle used to **limit** or **qualify** a noun, belongs to the noun which it modifies.

REM. 1.—The limiting adjective is usually placed before the qualifying; as, "*This old man*;" "*this valuable hint*."

REM. 2.—*A* or *an* belongs to nouns in the singular number; as, "*A book*;" "*an apple*." But before *few*, *hundred*, and *thousand* it seems to belong to a plural noun; as, "*A hundred ships*;" "*a few men*;" "*a thousand pounds*."

REM. 3.—*The* belongs to nouns either singular or plural; as, "*The man*;" "*the men*." For the use and the omission of the article, see English Grammar.

389. When the adjective element is a noun or a pronoun, it is subject to the following rules:—

RULE VI.—A noun or a pronoun used to **explain** or **identify** another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case.

Ex.—William the *conqueror* defeated Harold the Saxon *king*.

RULE VII.—A noun or a pronoun used to limit another noun, by denoting **possession**, must be in the possessive case.

Ex.—*Stephen's courage* failed. *Whose book* is this?

REM.—When two or more possessive nouns are connected coördinately, if they imply the possession of one object in common, the sign is applied only to the last; as, "*Little and Brown's store*;" but, if they imply the possession of different objects of the same name, the possessive sign should be applied to each; as, "*I have an Emerson's and a Greenleaf's Arithmetic*."

390. Cautions and Exercise for Specific Rule (2), Rule V.

391. CAUTION I.—Never use “a” before a word beginning with the sound of a vowel, nor “an” before a word beginning with the sound of a consonant. Say, “An apple,”—not “a apple.”

392. CAUTION II.—Avoid the use of a plural adjective to limit a singular noun. Say, “That sort of people,”—not “those sort.”

393. CAUTION III.—Never use the pronoun “them” for the adjective “those.” Say, “Those books,”—not “them books.”

394. CAUTION IV.—Avoid the use of the adjective for the adverb. Say, “Speak promptly,”—not “prompt.”

1. Construct other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*One limiting adjective.*)—This man came. Five dogs ran. The ink fades. Some scholars study.

(2.) (*One qualifying adjective.*)—Old wood burns. Wise men err. Wicked men fear. Cold winter comes.

(3.) (*Two limiting.*)—The first dawn appeared. The two travellers returned. The second class recites.

(4.) (*One lim. and one qual.*)—Every new lesson puzzles. Any good book instructs. Many old houses fell. The new toy pleases.

(5.) (*Two qualifying.*)—Good little children obey. Pretty wild flowers grew.

(6.) (*One lim. and two qual.*)—The little feathered songster warbles. That ambitious young man excels.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the foregoing examples.

Model.—“Cold winter comes” is a simple declarative sentence. Why? “Winter” is the simple subject; it is the subject without modification or addition. “Comes” is the predicate. Why? Both are elements of the first class. Why? “Cold winter” is the complex subject; it is the simple subject with all its modifications. “Winter” is limited by “cold,” a simple adjective element of the first class. It shows *what kind* of winter it is. “Cold” is a qualifying adjective of the positive degree. See Model, p.

3. Transform the foregoing sentences, as in previous lessons.

4. Correct the following examples:—

(1.) (CAUTION I.) He wore an uniform at the ball. Arnold was not a honorable man. I do not like such an one as that. This is an hard saying. Hugh has been gone a hour.

(2.) (CAUTION II.) I do not like those kind of words. The lot is fifty foot wide. We went about six mile an hour.

(3.) (CAUTION III.) Tell them boys to be still. Them apples are quite ripe. Them are the keys. Harry is fond of them things.

(4.) (CAUTION IV.) Beatrice speaks Italian fluent, and plays the harp beautiful. The stream flows silent on. I am exceeding sorry that it was not ready sooner.

395. Rule VI.—Exercises.

1. Construct two other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*Simple element.*) King Latinus ruled. Queen Mary reigned. President Taylor died. General Washington commanded.

(2.) (*Complex element.*) Bunyan, the distinguished author, endured. Demosthenes, the celebrated orator, declaimed. Arnold, the base traitor, escaped.

(3.) (*Compound element.*) The Presidents, Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Tyler, were Virginians. The sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella, united Castile and Arragon.

(4.) (*Complex and compound element.*) Those sisters, the cruel Mary and the sagacious Elizabeth, were queens of England.

3. Classify, analyze, and parse the preceding examples.

Model.—“Arnold, the base traitor, escaped,” is a simple declarative sentence. “Arnold” is the subject (24), and “escaped” is the predicate (25). The subject is limited by the expression “the base traitor,” showing *what* Arnold is meant; or more minutely thus,—“Arnold” is the simple, and “Arnold, the base traitor,” is the complex subject. “Escaped” is the predicate. “Arnold” is limited by “the base traitor,” a complex adjective element of the first class,—of which “traitor” is the basis, limited by “the” and “base,” simple adjective elements of the first class. “Traitor” is a common noun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case, and is used to identify “Arnold,” according to Rule VI.

396. Caution and Exercises for Rule VII.

397. CAUTION.—*Never omit the sign of possession in writing the possessive of a noun, nor employ it in writing that of a pronoun.* Write *man's*, not *mans*; *its*, not *it's*.

1. Construct five other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*Simple element.*) Mary's mother came. Wellington's renown increased. Napoleon's army marched. William's invention failed.

NOTE.—Let the teacher propose examples in which some of the elements are wanting.

(2.) (*Elements complex.*) The old man's daughter awoke. The merry huntsman's horn aroused. The bright sun's rays illumine.

(3.) (*Elements compound.*) Mason and Dixon's line separates. Webster's, Worcester's, and Richardson's Dictionary were consulted. (See Remark under the Rule.)

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the preceding examples.

Model.—"Wellington's renown increased" is a simple declarative sentence. Why? "Renown" is the simple, and "Wellington's renown" the complex subject; "increased" is the predicate. "Renown," the subject, is limited by "Wellington's," a simple adjective element of the first class. Why? It shows *whose* renown is meant. "Wellington's" is a proper noun, third person, singular number, possessive case; it is used to limit "renown," by denoting possession, according to Rule VII.

3. Transform the foregoing sentences—

(1.) By changing, as in the preceding lessons.

(2.) By changing the possessive to an element of the second class (consisting of the preposition "of" and its object) placed *after* the noun. Thus, "Mary's mother;" "the mother of Mary."

4. Correct by the Caution the following examples:—

They studied Websters Spelling Book. This shawl is her's. That is Thomas kite. The nations hopes are blasted. Their's let the profit be.

398. General Exercise.

5. Analyze the following sentences, and parse any words which come under the first seven Rules:—

He was a burning and a shining light.

Grim darkness furls his leaden shroud.

Art is long, and time is fleeting. “O” is a vowel.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.

But Hope, the charmer, lingered still behind.

Hushed were his Gertrude’s lips.

Art thou that traitor angel?

Angelica Kauffman was a distinguished artist.

Their only labor was to kill the time.

That life is long which answers life’s great end.

Your friend Harry Vernon has become a distinguished lawyer.

Our harps we left by Babel’s stream.

Charles I. was beheaded.

The child was called Maud.

Hail, Sabbath! thee I hail—the poor man’s day.

O lives there, Heaven, beneath thy vast expanse,

One hopeless, dark idolater of chance?

Boon nature scattered free and wild,

Each plant or flower, the mountain’s child.

But when the sun, in all his state,

Illumed the eastern skies,

He passed through Glory’s morning gate,

And walked in Paradise.

6. Collect and bring in any violations of the first seven Rules, or of the Cautions under them.

LESSON LXXVIII.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

399. The objective element is put in construction with a transitive verb by the following rule:—

RULE VIII.—A noun or a pronoun, used as the **object** of a transitive verb or its participles, must be in the objective case.

Ex.—He found the *object* which he desired.

REM. 1.—The indirect object which shows that *to* or *for* which any thing is, or is done, properly speaking, follows a preposition understood.

Ex.—Give *me* a book — Give *to* me a book. The preposition should be used when the direct object is placed first.

REM. 2.—The following verbs, *make*, *appoint*, *elect*, *create*, *constitute*, *render*, *name*, *style*, *call*, *esteem*, *think*, *consider*, *regard*, *reckon*, and some others, take a *double object*,—the first *direct*, or *principal*,—the second, its *attribute*, and hence called the *attributive object*.

Ex.—They called *him* John.

REM. 3.—The following verbs, *buy*, *sell*, *play*, *sing*, and many others, take two objects, one *direct*, and the other *indirect*.

Ex.—Buy *me* a knife.

REM. 4.—The object may be the infinitive or a substantive clause.

Ex.—The girl loves *to read*; I knew *that you would come*.

400. Caution and Exercises.

401. **CAUTION.**—Never use the nominative as the object of a transitive verb. Say, “*Whom* did he visit?”—not “*Who* did he visit?”

With what is the objective element put in construction? Give Rule VIII. What remark on the indirect object? What verbs take a double object? What is remarked of the verbs *buy*, *sell*, &c.? What is the remark on the infinitive and the substantive clause? Give the caution under Rule VIII.

1. Construct five other examples like the following:—

(1.) (*Simple objective.*) Columbus discovered America. Pizarro conquered Peru. Ada uses perfume. James killed flies.

(2.) (*Complex objective.*) He lived a desolate life. They found agreeable companions. She recognized Henry's voice. Have you read the "Dairyman's Daughter"? They burned Huss the reformer. Herod beheaded John the Baptist.

(3.) (*Compound objective.*) He declined the honor and the emolument. The grocer kept dates and figs. The legislature passed laws and resolves.

(4.) (*Double object.*) They made him king. He appointed John monitor. They called him George. Give me flowers.

Model.—"They made him king" is a simple declarative sentence. "They" is the subject; "made" is

the simple and "made him king" the complex predicate. "Made" is modified by "him king," a double object, both parts being necessary to complete the meaning of the verb; "him" is the principal and "king" the attributive object. (See Rule VIII., Rem. 2.)

Parse each separately, applying Rule VIII., and Rem. 2.

2. Correct by the Caution the following examples:—

Who did you see yesterday? Who did he marry? They that help us, we should reward. Who should I find but my cousin? I do not know who to send.

3. Classify, analyze, and parse the foregoing sentences.

Model.—"Columbus discovered America." It is a simple declarative sentence. Why? "Columbus" is the subject. Why? "Discovered" is the simple and "discovered America" is the complex predicate.

"Discovered" is limited by "America," a simple objective element of the first class, showing *what* Columbus discovered. "America" is a proper noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and is used as the object of "discovered."

Rule VIII.

4. Transform any of the foregoing sentences by changing the object into the subject, and the verb from the active to the passive voice. Thus, "America was discovered by Columbus."

5. Construct and analyze five sentences having subjects limited by complex adjective elements, and predicates limited by complex objective elements.

LESSON LXXIX.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ADVERBIAL ELEMENT.

402. The adverbial element is put in construction with a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an adverb, by the following rule:—

RULE IX.—Adverbs are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

Ex.—Lightning moves *swiftly*. Walking *slowly* along, we came to a hill. The water is *very* deep. Move your fingers *very* quickly.

Caution and Exercises.

403. CAUTION I.—*Never use two negatives to express a negation.*

Say, "I want *no* aid,"—not "I *don't* want *no* aid."

404. CAUTION II.—Never use “*how*” before “*that*,” nor instead of it.

Say, “He said *that* he would come,”—not “*how that* he would come,” nor “*how he* would come.”

1. Construct six other sentences like the following:—

(1.) (*Simple adverbial element.*) She played finely. The campaign opened vigorously. The boat arrived yesterday. They ride frequently.

(2.) (*Complex adverbial element.*) She hears very imperfectly. They go too often. She sews very neatly. He managed most adroitly.

(3.) (*Adverbial element compound.*) She writes rapidly and neatly. The rain falls softly and silently. He came early and late.

(4.) (*Complex adjective and complex objective wanting.*) — horn aroused — early. — son inherited — legally.

2. Analyze and parse the foregoing.

Model.—“Lawrence writes carefully” is a simple declarative sentence. “Lawrence” is the subject; “writes” is the grammatical and “writes carefully” the logical predicate. “Writes” is modified by “carefully,” a simple adverbial element of the first class; *adverbial*, because it is added to a verb, and shows how he writes; *simple*, because it receives no modification or addition; *first class*, because it is a *single word*, expressing both the idea of *care* and its relation to “writes.” “Carefully” is an adverb of manner,—compared, *carefully, more carefully, most carefully*. It limits “writes.” Rule IX.

3. Correct by Caution I. the following examples:—

I cannot write no more. Candace says how that she

won't go nohow. Paul will never be no better. Raymond hasn't been to no shop.

4. Correct the following by Caution II.:—

Ella said how she believed it. Just remember how that a penny saved is a penny earned. Isaac said how that he would come.

INTERJECTION AND CASE INDEPENDENT.

RULE X.—The nominative case **independent** and the **interjection** have no grammatical relation to the other parts.

1. Construct and parse other examples like these:—

(1.) (*By direct address.*) Plato, thou reasonest well. Children, obey your parents.

(2.) (*By exclamation.*) O thought ineffable! O vision blest! O my misfortune! when shall I be released!

(3.) (*By pleonasm.*) The pilgrim fathers, where are they? Gad, a troop shall overcome him.

(4.) (*Case absolute.*) See Special Rule, under Rule XVII. He having given us the direction, we departed. Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.

Model.—“Plato, thou reasonest well,” is a simple sentence. Why? “Thou” is the simple subject; “reasonest” is the simple and “reasonest well” is the complex predicate. “Plato” is a proper noun, second person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case independent, by direct address; it forms no part of the proposition. Rule X.

2. Construct five examples containing interjections, and parse them by the rule.

Model.—“Alas! I then have chid away my friend.”

"Alas" is an interjection; it has no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence. Rule X.

405. General Parsing Exercises.

Imperial Rome governed the bodies of men, but not their souls.

The sentinel inquired, "Who comes there?"

Speak softly, for a breath might wake her.

Fair daffodils! we weep to see you haste away so soon.

The pilgrim fathers, where are they!

Sweet day! so calm, so still, so bright,

The bridal of the earth and sky.

Let us repeat that prayer in the hour when the wicked assail us. Let us repeat it now, and say, "O Father, forgive them!"

Thou, too, sail on, O ship of State!

Sail on, O UNION, strong and great!

Fear not each sudden sound and shock,

'Tis of the wave, and not the rock.

Sail on, nor fear to breast the sea!

Our hearts, our hopes, are all with thee.

LESSON LXXX.

CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF CONNECTIVES.—COÖRDINATE CONNECTIVES.

(PARTIAL COMPOUND SENTENCES.)

406. *Coördinate* connectives are used when the parts to be united are similar. The sentence then has one or more of its parts compound, and is called a *partial compound* sentence.

RULE XI.—Coördinate conjunctions are used to connect similar elements.

Ex.—Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob were Jewish patriarchs.

407. Exercises.

1. Construct three other examples like each of these.

(1.) (*Subjects coördinate.*) Exercise and temperance strengthen the constitution. Romulus and Remus were twin brothers.

(2.) (*Predicates coördinate.*) Education expands and elevates the mind. Religion refines and purifies the affections. No fascinated throng weep, and melt, and tremble at his eloquence.

(3.) (*Adj. element coördinate.*) Wise and good men are frequently unsuccessful. A bright and glorious prospect is opened by Christianity. A plain and simple style recommends and heightens the sublime.

(4.) (*Obj. element coördinate.*) Pope wrote the Messiah, and the Essay on Criticism. Behold my mother and my brethren. The creation demonstrates God's power and wisdom.

(5.) (*Adverbial element coördinate.*) The waves dashed wildly and furiously against the boat. Live quietly and contentedly.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the foregoing examples.

Model.—“Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob were Jewish patriarchs.” It is a partial compound sentence, because one of its parts, the subject, is compound. It is declarative. Why? “Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob” is the compound subject, consisting of three component

parts. Name them. "Were Jewish patriarchs" is the complex, and "were patriarchs" the simple predicate; "and" is a coördinate conjunction, and is used to connect the similar elements "Isaac" and "Jacob," according to Rule XI.

3. Construct and analyze other examples like the above, with the component parts complex.

4. Transform the foregoing examples by making them into complete compound sentences. Thus:—

"Abraham was a Jewish patriarch, Isaac was a Jewish patriarch, and Jacob was a Jewish patriarch." Then suppress the common part and restore the sentence to its present form.

408. In the construction of a verb or a pronoun which relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction, observe the following rule:—

RULE XII.—(1.) If the verb or pronoun agrees with them **conjointly**, it must be in the plural number.

(2.) But if it agrees with them taken **separately**, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(3.) If it agrees with **one**, and **not** the other, it must take the number of that one.

Exercises.

Construct other examples like these:—

(1.) (*Conjointly.*) Charles and his sister were absent, but they were sent for. One day the poor woman and her idiot boy were missed from the market-place.

(2.) (*Separately.*) Neither his vote, his influence, nor his purse, was ever withheld from the cause in which he had engaged. Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved.

(3.) (*One, and not the other.*) Charles, and not his sister was absent. The parents, and not the child, are responsible.

LESSON LXXXI.

ELEMENTS OF THE SECOND CLASS—PHRASES.

409. An element of the second class is always a *phrase*, and is usually an infinitive (413), a copula and an attribute (347, REM.), or a preposition and its object.

CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF THE PREPOSITION.

RULE XIII.—A **preposition** is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends.

Ex.—George *went into* the garden.

RULE XIV.—A noun or a pronoun, used as the **object** of a preposition, must be in the objective case.

Ex.—The ruins of the Parthenon stand *upon* the Acropolis, *in* the city of Athens.

REM. 1.—The preposition is generally to be supplied before nouns denoting *time, measure, distance, value*,—or after the adjectives *like, near, nigh, worth*; as, “He walked [through] two miles;” “He is like [to] his father.”

1. Construct other examples like each of the following:—

Give Rule XIII. Rule XIV. In what cases is the preposition generally omitted?

(1.) (*The subject—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—To love exalts. To exercise strengthens. To forgive ennobles. To walk invigorates.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—To see the sun is pleasant. To know oneself is the highest wisdom. To soothe thy sickness, and to watch thy health, shall be my pleasure. To toil for, and yet to lose the reward of virtue, is the hard lot of man.

(2.) (*Predicate—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—Coffee is fragrant. Medicine is nauseous. He is a scholar. To err is human. Her hope is to return. The lady is in grief. To obey is to enjoy.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—The present life is not wholly prosaic, precise, tame, and finite. To pray is to render thanks to God, to adore him, and to supplicate his mercy.

(3.) (*Adjective element—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—The temple of Solomon was destroyed. The gates of the convent were closed. The bard of Avon sleeps.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—Men of tried character were found. An observation of the sun in the meridian was taken. The reign of William and Mary commenced with the glorious revolution of 1688. The tops of Olympus and Parnassus reached above the clouds.

(4.) (*Objective element—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—They hoped to succeed. She desired to write. He strives to excel. Ada is trying to learn.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—The book deserves to be read with great care. I intended to write a full account of the affair. He chooses to die and to redeem his friend. She is led to engage in calmer pursuits, and to seek for gentler employment.

(5.) (*Adverbial element—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—

(a.) *Place.*—She came to the city. Anna sat in the

carriage. Rain falls from the clouds. The lion roars in the forest.

(b.) *Time*.—The boat sailed in the morning. The convention will meet on Tuesday. Come at noon. In the morning it flourisheth.

(c.) *Cause*.—Ella ran from fear. The inhabitants are perishing from famine. The party were travelling for pleasure.

(d.) *Manner*.—The messenger came in haste. The orator spoke with fluency. The Greeks succeeded by stratagem. Emily was delighted with her present.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND MISCELLANEOUS.—With trembling limbs and faltering steps, he departed from his mansion of sorrow. I have spent my days in darkness and error. The commissioners came to examine the ground, and to hear the statements of the opposing parties. On Monday or Tuesday, the examination will commence. Across the lake, through bush and brake, resounds the bugle-horn.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse any of the foregoing examples.

Model.—“This ancient city was situated at the head of the bay,” is a simple declarative sentence. Why? “This ancient city” is the complex, and “city” the simple subject. “Was situated at the head of the bay” is the complex, and “was situated” the simple predicate. “City,” the subject, is limited by “this” and “ancient,” two simple adjective elements of the first class. The predicate, “was situated,” is limited by “at the head of the bay,” a complex adverbial element of the second class, of which “at head” is the basis; “at” is the preposition, and “head” the object; “head” is limited by “the,” a simple adjective element of the first class, and by “of the bay,”

a complex adjective element of the second class; "of bay" is the basis, "of" the preposition, and "bay" the object, and is limited by "the" (described as above). "At" is a preposition, and shows the relation of "head" to "was situated." Rule XIII. "Head" is a common noun, third person, sing. num., neut. gen., obj. case, and is used as the object of the preposition "at." Rule XIV.

NOTE.—The teacher will often employ the *brief* analyses in these examples, using the full Models only when the peculiar structure of *phrases* and clauses is to be explained.

3. Transform any of the preceding examples—

(1.) By changing the class of the sentence (interrogative, imperative, exclamatory).

(2.) By transposing the subject of No. 1 (1), and introducing the sentence by "it." Thus, "*It* is pleasant to see the sun."

(3.) By altering any of the second-class elements in No. 1 (3) to first-class. Thus, "*Solomon's* temple was destroyed."

(4.) By transposing the adverbial element in No. 1 (5) (*a, b, c, d*). Thus, "*To the city* she came."

410. General Exercises.

Analyze and parse the following examples:—

A distinction ought to be made between fame and true honor.

I would calmly and humbly submit myself to the good and blessed will of God.

Where was it when winds and clouds were its only visitors?

Neither moon nor stars shine upon the wanderer.

Strong proofs, not a loud noise, produce conviction.

Not the boys, but the farmer, was in fault.
 From shore to shore, from cliff to cliff, 'twas free.
 The mountains, like huge giants, stand.

The breezy call of incense-breathing morn,
 The swallow, twittering from the straw-built shed,
 The cock's shrill clarion, or the echoing horn,
 No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.—ELEMENTS THIRD CLASS.

An element of the third class is always a *clause* consisting of a connective and a proposition.

LESSON LXXXII.

CONSTRUCTION OF SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES.

RULE XV.—Subordinate connectives are used to join dissimilar elements.

Ex.—He *that* hath pity on the poor lendeth to the Lord.

REM. 1.—Elements are dissimilar when they differ in their *nature*, *rank*, or *form*. See Lessons LXIX. and LXX.

REM. 2.—The subordinate connective unites the clause which it introduces to the word which the clause limits; as, “*I perceive that you need assistance.*”

411. Exercises.

1. Construct three other examples like each of the following:—

* Simple, complex, and compound elements are here mingled, to afford an exercise for the learner in distinguishing and imitating them.

What is an element of the third class? Give Rule XV. When are elements dissimilar? What does the subordinate connective unite?

(1.) (*Subject,—a clause.*) That he deceived, became certain. Who wrote Junius's Letters is uncertain. That their poetry was almost uniformly mournful, and that their views of nature were dark and dreary, will be allowed by all who admit the authenticity of Ossian. That we are, as yet, only in the rudiments of the great science of education, cannot be questioned.

(2.) (*Attribute,—a clause.*) My desire is, that you may succeed. His pretence was, that the storm of the preceding evening prevented his attendance. Your belief is, that the enemy has crossed the country. My proposition is, that your son shall return to college, that you shall go abroad, and that the house shall be closed during your absence. His answer was, that he approved the plan of the measure, and that he was confident of its success.

(3.) (*Adjective element,—a clause.*) Evils which cannot be cured must be endured. He who reads in a proper spirit can scarcely read too much. Slaves and savages who receive no education are proverbially indolent. A cottage which is shaded with trees, and which is situated far from the noise and bustle of the city, is a very pleasant retreat. That faith which is one, which renews and justifies all who possess it, which confessions and formularies can never adequately express, is the property of all alike.

(4.) (*Objective element,—a clause.*) Many suppose that the planets are inhabited. The insane imagine that they alone are sane. We all know how a man of mighty genius can impart himself to other minds. Every one should feel that his existence stretches beyond the limits of this mortal life. He heard that his wife had fallen a lingering sacrifice to penury and sorrow; that his children had gone to seek their fortunes in distant or unknown climes; and that the grave contained his nearest and most valuable friends.

(5.) (*Adverbial element,—a clause.*)* They were sitting where the branches of a spreading elm protected them from the burning rays of the noonday sun. As far as the east is from the west, so far has he removed our transgressions from us. While I was musing, the fire burned. When two lines cross each other, the opposite angles are equal. Ye shall not see me, because I go unto my Father. Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor. Speak as you think. Happiness is more equally divided than some suppose. While the bridegroom tarried, they all slumbered and slept. As we grow older, life becomes dim in the distance. Wherever we are, we are not forgotten by a kind Providence. When a few more friends have left us, a few more hopes deceived and a few more changes mocked us, we shall be brought to the grave, and remain in the tomb. He takes us from earth, that he may lead us to heaven, that he may refine our nature from all its principles of corruption, that he may share with us his own immortality, that he may admit us to his everlasting habitation, and that he may crown us with his eternity.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse any of the foregoing examples.

Model.—“When the wicked are multiplied, transgression increaseth,” is a complex declarative sentence; *complex*, because it contains dissimilar clauses, —“transgression increaseth” being the principal and “when the wicked are multiplied” the subordinate clause. “Transgression,” the subject of the principal clause, is the subject of the sentence; “increaseth” is the simple and “increaseth when the wicked are multiplied” is the complex predicate.

* Let the learner distinguish those which denote *place*, *time*, *cause*, and *manner*.

"Increaseth" is limited by "when the wicked are multiplied," a complex adverbial element of the third class, of which "when wicked (more exactly "persons" understood) are multiplied" is the basis. "Persons" understood is limited by "the" and "wicked;" or "wicked" used as a noun is limited by "the;" the predicate is not limited. "When" is a subordinate connective (conjunctive adverb of time), and joins the adverbial clause, which it introduces, to "increaseth," the predicate of the principal clause. Rule XV. It limits "are multiplied," and "increaseth," according to Rule IX.

3. Transform any of the foregoing examples:—

(1.) By altering the subordinate clause to a *word* or *phrase*.

(2.) By transposing it.

(3.) By changing the entire sentence to a declarative, interrogative, &c.

(4.) By making the subordinate into a principal clause. Thus, "They were sitting, and the branches of a spreading elm protected them from the burning rays of the noon-day sun."

(5.) Change examples in No. 1 (1), by introducing the sentence with "it." Thus, "It became certain that he deceived."

4. Change any of the following adjective, objective, or adverbial elements into clauses, thus converting simple into complex sentences:—

Trees *growing at the foot of the mountain* are taller than those on the summit. A *persevering* man will overcome obstacles. A *discontented* man cannot be happy. I do not remember *the time of the lecture*. The ancients believed *the earth to be a vast plain*. *On our arrival*, all was bustle and confusion. Thus, "A man *who perseveres* will prosper."

LESSON LXXXIII.**COMPOUND SENTENCES—ELEMENTS OF THE
THIRD CLASS.**

A compound sentence is formed by uniting two or more principal propositions by either of the coördinate conjunctions.

412. Exercises.

1. Construct other examples like the following:—

(1.) (*Copulative clauses.*) We shall feel the same revolution of the seasons, and the same sun and moon will guide the course of our year. Modesty is one of the chief ornaments of youth; and it has ever been esteemed a presage of rising merit. You know I love country life, and here we have it in perfection.

(2.) (*Adversative clauses.*) The man was communicative enough, but nothing was distinct in his mind. A clownish air is but a small defect; yet it is enough to make a man disagreeable. Pope had perhaps the judgment of Dryden; but Dryden certainly wanted the diligence of Pope. I believe there are few heads capable of making Sir Isaac Newton's calculations; but the result of them is not difficult to be understood by a moderate capacity.

(3.) (*Alternative clauses.*) We must fight, or our liberties will be lost. Never utter any profane speeches, nor make a jest of any scriptural expressions. Either he will hate the one, and love the other, or else he will hold to the one, and despise the other. Neither hath this man sinned, nor his parents.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse any of the preceding.

Model.—"You know I love country life, and here we have it in perfection." It is a compound declarative sentence; *compound*, because it contains similar clauses; *declarative*, because it declares something. "You know I love country life" is the first, and "here we have it in perfection" is the second principal proposition. They are coördinate with each other, and are connected by "and," which is a copulative coördinate conjunction. Rule XI. [Analyze each proposition separately, as a simple sentence.]

3. Transform any of the preceding examples (where it can be done) by changing one of the clauses (1) to a subordinate clause; (2) to a participial construction.

Model.—Play with a fool at home, and he will play with you abroad, = If you play with a fool at home, he will play with you abroad, = By playing with a fool at home, he will play with you abroad.

LESSON LXXXIV.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE.

413. In changing a complex to a simple sentence, we must change the verb of the subordinate clause to an infinitive or a participle. These are then disposed of by the following rules:—

RULE XVI.—The **infinitive** has the con-

When is the subordinate clause changed to the infinitive or a participle? Give Rule XVI.

struction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the *verb*, and, when dependent, is governed by the word which it limits.

Ex.—*To err* is human. They desire *to travel in a foreign country*.

REM. 1.—The infinitive may be associated with the subject which the verb had before the subordinate clause was changed.

Ex.—We wish that *you* would *stay* = We wish *you to stay*.

Or that subject may be dropped, and the infinitive may appear without it.

Ex.—We wish that *we* might *stay* = We wish *to stay*.

Special Rule.

The **to** of the infinitive is omitted after the active voice of *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, and *feel*.

Ex.—I saw him *do* it. You heard him *say* it.

RULE XVII.—Participles have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs*.

Ex.—He *stooping* down, and *looking* in, saw the linen clothes *lying*; yet went he not in. A habit of sincerity in *acknowledging* faults is a guard against *committing* them.

REM. 1.—The participle, like the infinitive, may be associated with the subject which the verb had before the subordinate clause was changed. When this subject remains in the nominative case, it is parsed by the following special rule:—

A noun or a pronoun is put in the *nominative*

absolute, with a participle, when its case depends upon no other word.

Ex.—*Shame being lost*, all virtue is lost.

REM. 2.—The participle, when used as an *adjective*, *assumes* the action which the verb *asserts*. When used as a *noun*, it is equivalent to the infinitive, and may be (1) *wholly* a noun.

Ex.—It is pleasant to walk at the *rising* of the sun.

Or *partially* so.

Ex.—We should avoid *giving* pain to others.

In the last example, the participle retains some of its verbal character, thereby governing “*pain*.”

414. Exercises.

1. Construct three other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*Inf. and part.—subject.*) Lying is the vice of slaves. To steal is base. To forgive is divine. To mourn without measure, is folly; not to mourn at all, insensibility. Cheating, stealing, swearing, and traducing, are all criminal. To deprive me of liberty, to torture me, or to imprison me, is not your right.

(2.) (*Inf. and part.—predicate.*) The boat is approaching. Night is coming. The ceremony was performed. The boy is to be educated. The boat is to sail on Tuesday. The ship was lying at anchor. The great object of education is, not to store the mind with knowledge, but to give activity and vigor to its power.

(3.) (*Inf. and part.—adj. element.*) Ages yet to come will develop greater improvements in the arts than are now astonishing mankind. A desire to aid his friend led him to encounter every danger and surmount every difficulty. The setting sun is a beautiful object. Being convinced of his guilt, we resolved to punish him.

What is said of the participle used as an *adjective*? When used as a *noun*?

(4.) (*Inf. and part.—obj. element.*) The problem has to be wrought out. It teaches us to be thankful for all favors received, to love each other, and to be united. The decalogue forbids worshipping idols.

(5.) (*Inf. and part.—adv. element.*) They ascended the Nile to discover its source. I have brought this flower to show you the peculiar structure of its petals. The legislature appointed commissioners to make a geological survey of the state. Hope “springs exulting on triumphant wing.”

2. Transform, analyze, and parse the preceding examples. Thus, “*That one should steal, is base.*”

415. General Exercise.

Analyze and parse the following examples:—

While there is life, there is hope.

Whatever is, is right.

She hath done what she could.

The redbreast loves to build and warble there.

Let not Ambition mock their useful toil.

The storm rising, Julia hastened home.

Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll;—

Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain.

Then, kneeling down, to Heaven's eternal King

The saint, the husband, and the father prays;

Hope “springs exulting on triumphant wing,”

That thus they all shall meet in future days.

There is a glorious city in the sea;

The tide is in the broad, the narrow streets,

Ebbing and flowing;—and the salt sea-weed.

Clings to the marble of her palaces.

No track of men, no footsteps to and fro,

Lead to her gates—the path lies o'er the sea.

Inspiring thought of rapture yet to be!
The tears of love were hopeless, but for thee.
If in that frame no deathless spirit dwell,
If that faint murmur be the last farewell,
If fate unite the faithful but to part,
Why is their memory sacred to the heart?

PROSODY.

LESSON LXXXV.

VERSE, FEET, SCANNING.

416. **Prosody** treats of the laws of versification.

417. **Versification** is the art of composing poetic verse.

418. A **verse** is a succession of accented and unaccented syllables, constituting a line of poetry.

419. Verse is of two kinds, **rhyme** and **blank verse**.

420. **Rhyme** is the correspondence of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines.

421. **Blank verse** is without rhyme.

Of what does Prosody treat? What is a verse? How many kinds?
What constitutes rhyme? What is blank verse?

422. A *foot* is two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

423. The principal feet, in English, are the **iambus**, the **trochee**, the **anapæst**, and the **dactyl**.

424. The **iambus** consists of a short and a long syllable.

Ex.—*Invīte, děvōte, běnīgn.*

425. The **trochee** consists of a long and a short syllable.

Ex.—*Grātefūl, griēvoūs.*

426. The **anapæst** consists of two short syllables and one long one.

Ex.—*Incomplēte, cōnděscēnd.*

427. The **dactyl** consists of one long syllable and two short ones.

Ex.—*Pōsitīve, lōnelīnēss.*

428. **Scanning** consists in dividing a verse into the feet which compose it.

429. Examples and Exercises.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. *Iambic of one foot* :—

Thěy gō
To sow.

What is a foot? What are the principal feet in English? Of what does the iambus consist? The trochee? The anapæst? The dactyl? What is meant by scanning?

2. *Iambic of two feet* :—

Tō mē | thē rōse
No longer glows.

3. *Iambic of three feet* :—

Nō rōy- | āl pōmp | ādōrns
This King of righteousnes.

4. *Iambic of four feet* :—

And cōld- | ēr stīl | thē wīnd | dīd blōw,
And darker hours of night came on.

5. *Iambic of five feet, or pentameter* :—

On rīft- | ēd rōcks, | thē drāg- | ḥn's lāte | ābōdes,
The green reed trembles and the bulrush nōds.

6. *Iambic of six feet, or hexameter* :

Hīs hēart | ȳs sād, | hīs hōpe | ȳs gōne, | hīs līght | ȳs
pāssed;
He sits and mourns in silent grief the lingering day.

7. *Iambic of seven feet, or heptameter* :—

Thē lōf- | ty hill, | thē hūm- | blē lāwn, | wīth cōunt- | lēss
beāū | tiēs shīne
The silent grove, the solemn shade, proclaim thy power
divine.

LESSON LXXXVI.

430. Iambic of five feet is called **heroic** verse; that of six feet is called **Alexandrine**.

431. Iambic of seven feet is commonly divided into two lines,—the first containing four feet, the

second three. This is called **common metre**; as,

The lofty hill, the humble lawn,
With countless beauties shine;
The silent grove, the solemn shade,
Proclaim thy power divine.

432. In **long metre**, each line has four iambic feet; in **short metre**, the first, second, and fourth lines contain three iambic feet, the third four.

433. Each species of iambic verse may have one additional short syllable.

434. Examples and Exercise.

Upōn | ā mōun | taīn.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. Trochaic of one foot:—

Chāngīng.
Ranging.

2. Trochaic of two feet:—

Fāncy | viēwīng,
Joys ensuing.

3. Trochaic of three feet:—

Gō whēre | glōry | wāits thēe;
But when fame elates thee.

4. Trochaic of four feet:—

Rōund ā | hōly | cālm dīf- | fūsing,
Love of peace and lonely musing.

5. *Trochaic of five feet:*—

All thāt | wālk ḥn | fōot ḥr | rīde īn | chāriōts,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Trochaic of six feet:*—

On ā | mōuntāin | strētched, bě- | nēath ā | hōary | willōw,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

LESSON LXXXVII.

435. In trochaic verse, the accent is placed upon the odd syllables; in iambic, on the even.

436. Trochaic verse may take an additional long syllable.

437. Examples and Exercise.

Idlē | āftēr | dīnnēr, | īn hīs | chāir,
Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.1. *Anapæstic of one foot:*—

Büt īn vāin
They complain.

2. *Anapæstic of two feet:*—

Whēre thē sūn | lōves tō pāuse
With so fond a delay.

3. *Anapaestic of three feet:*—

Frōm thē cēn- | trē āll rōund | tō thē sēa
I'm lord of the fowl and the brute.

4. *Anapaestic of four feet:*—

At thē clōse | ḍf thē dāy, | whēn thē hām- | lēt ī stīl,
And mōrtals the swēets of forgētfulness prōve.

LESSON LXXXVIII.

438. In anapaestic verse, the accent falls on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapaestic verse may be an iambus.

439. Examples and Exercise.

And mōr- | tāls thē swēets | ḍf fōrgēt- | fūlnēss prōve.

DACTYLIC VERSE.1. *Dactylic of one foot:*—

Chēerfully,
Fearfully.

2. *Dactylic of two feet:*—

Frēe frōm ānx- | īety,
Care and satiety.

3. *Dactylic of three feet:*—

Wearīng ā- | wāy īn hīs | yoūthfūlnēss,
Loveliness, beauty, and truthfulness.

4. *Dactylic of four feet:*—

Bōys will ān- | tīcīpāte, | lāvīsh, ānd | dīssīpāte
All that your busy pate hoarded with care.

Few poems are perfectly regular in their feet. The different kinds of feet are often mingled in the same verse. Thus:—

I cōme, | I cōme; | yě hăve cālled | mě lōng;
I cōme | o'er thē mōun- | taīns, wīth līght | ānd sōng.

NOTE.—For exercises in scanning, let the pupil apply these rules to different verses in his reading lessons.

PUNCTUATION.

LESSON LXXXIX.

440. **Punctuation** is the art of dividing written composition by means of points.

441. The principal points are the **comma** (,), the **semicolon** (;), the **colon** (:), the **dash** (—), the **parenthesis** (), the **period** (.), the **interrogation point** (?), the **exclamation point** (!).

442. A point should **not be used** when two parts are *simple*, arranged in their *natural order*, and are *closely connected*.

443. A point should be used at the *end of every sentence*,—to separate the *members* of a loose sentence,—to separate the **elements** of a sentence when they form a *series* of more than two terms,—when *loosely connected*, when *trans-*

posed, when *greatly extended*, when a word is *omitted*, or when the meaning would be otherwise *obscure*.

The comma, semicolon, colon, dash, and parenthesis are used to separate the parts of a sentence; the period, interrogation point, and exclamation point are used to separate entire sentences.

THE COMMA.

444. The comma is used principally in separating the *elements* of simple or complex sentences.

445. The comma should be used according to the following rules :—

RULE I.—All the terms of a coördinate series, except the final one, should be separated by the comma.

A coördinate series consists of more than *two* terms.

Ex.—*Peaches, pears and grapes* are excellent fruit.

RULE II.—The terms of a **coördinate couplet** should be separated—

A couplet means *two* terms.

1. When the conjunction is *omitted*.
2. When the terms are *identical* or *equivalent*.
3. When the terms are *contrasted* or *emphatically distinguished*.
4. When either is limited by an element *not applicable* to the other.

5. When one or both are so limited as to be considerably *extended*.

Ex.—1. The *sweetest, wildest* land on earth. 2. *Verily, verily*, I say unto you. We sailed into an *inlet, or harbor*. 3. 'Tis certain he can *write, and cipher* too. The fellow was *wicked, not weak*. 4. Undue susceptibility, and the *preponderance* of mere feeling over thoughtfulness, may mislead. 5. *Integrity* of understanding, and *nicety* of discernment, were not allotted in a less proportion to Dryden than to Pope.

RULE III.—A subordinate element should be separated from its principal—

1. When an **adjective clause** or **expression** is used to *explain* and not to *restrict* the meaning of the principal.

Ex.—We venerate the name of Washington, *who was styled the father of his country*. Moses, *the servant of the Lord*, died there in the land of Moab. Passion is like a whirlwind, *prostrating indiscriminately whatever comes in its way*.

2. When an **objective clause** or **expression** is *transposed*, or *separated* by an intervening expression.

Ex.—*The impending storm which threatened us*, we all escaped. For all that, said the pendulum, it is very dark here.

3. When an **adverbial clause** or **expression** is *transposed, loosely connected, parenthetic, or independent*.

Ex.—*On the contrary*, the truth lies here. Again, the question must be viewed practically. *In fine*, the result

proves the truth of the proposition. It will appear, *without doubt*, that his intentions were honest. *To confess the truth*, I had thought but little of the matter.

RULE IV.—The two principal elements are separated by the comma—

1. When the **subject nominative** is a long *clause*, or is a *noun* or a *pronoun* so modified as to give an extended complex subject, or when the modified subject ends with a verb or any word which would make the meaning doubtful without a point.

Ex.—That two little wires stretched from city to city should be the means of throwing the whole nation instantly into commotion, is truly marvellous. He that places himself neither higher nor lower than he ought to do, exercises the truest humility.

RULE V.—Independent and parenthetical expressions should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

Ex.—*Gad*, a troop shall overcome him. Yet once more, *O ye laurels*. Thou knowest, *come what may*, that the light of truth cannot be put out.

446. Exercise.

Punctuate the following examples:—

Go where a man may home is the centre to which the heart turns.

Here comes his body mourned by Mark Antony.

Nature through all her works delights in variety.

He being dead yet speaketh.

I thank thee Roderick for the word.

Accordingly the chronicles of the middle ages teem with crime.

His story is in short the tale of an impostor.

At the base of the mountain we dismounted from our horses.

All nature is but art unknown to thee

All chance direction which thou canst not see.

We visited Abbotsford, the home of Sir Walter Scott.

An indiscriminate reading of novels and romances is exceedingly injurious to the young.

In the contemplation of these august teachers of mankind we are filled with conflicting emotions.

That a peculiar state of the mere particles of the brain should be followed by a change of the state of the sentient mind is truly wonderful.

The ancients separated the corn from the ear by causing an ox to trample on the sheaves.

General Washington the first President of the United States was a true patriot a genuine lover of his country.

The more highly we cultivate our minds here the better shall we be prepared for the nobler pursuits of the next stages of our existence.

See through this air this ocean and this earth

All matter quick and bursting into birth.

Speak as you mean do as you profess and perform what you promise.

You are a parent or a child a brother or a sister a husband or a wife a friend or an associate of some kindred soul.

Has God provided for the poor a coarser earth a thinner air a paler sky?

Industry honesty and temperance are essential to happiness.

Lend lend your wings.
 Woe woe to the rider that tramples them down.
 It is a star or some distant light.
 The storms of many winters and the scorching heats
 of many summers have visited that ruin.

Contrasted faults through all their manners reign,
 Though poor luxurious ; though submissive vain ;
 Though grave yet trifling ; zealous yet untrue ;
 And even in penance planning sins anew.

THE COLON AND SEMICOLON.

447. The **colon** and **semicolon** are used chiefly to separate the members of a loose sentence.

Ex.—Make a proper use of your time ; for the loss of it can never be regained.

REM. 1.—The colon is now but little used, except before examples following the expressions *as follows*, *the following examples*, *in these words*; as, “Perform the following exercises :”

REM. 2.—When, in a complex sentence, several subordinate clauses are united to each other, having a common dependence upon the principal clause, they are separated by the semicolon ; as, “Philosophers assert that Nature is unlimited in her operations ; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve ; that knowledge will always be progressive ; and that future generations will continue to make discoveries.”

448. Exercise.

Insert the comma, the semicolon, and the colon where they are required in the following examples :

Never value yourself upon your fortune for this is the sign of a weak mind.

Pope had perhaps the judgment of Dryden but Dryden certainly wanted the diligence of Pope.

The great tendency and purpose of poetry is to carry the mind above and beyond the beaten dusty weary walks of ordinary life to lift it into a purer element and to breathe into it more profound and generous emotion.

Write on your slate the following example Mary and John will go.

The great, the wise and the good were there.

Endeavor to excel much may be accomplished by perseverance.

THE DASH AND PARENTHESIS.

449. The **dash** is used where there is a significant pause, an unexpected transition in the sentence, or where a sentence is left unfinished.

Ex.—He sometimes counsel takes, and sometimes—snuff; But I must first —.

Rem.—The dash is now frequently used instead of the parenthesis; as, “The colonists—such is human nature—desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched.”

450. The **parenthesis** is used to enclose a part of a sentence not necessary to the construction, but in some way explanatory of the meaning of the sentence.

Ex.—Consider (and may the consideration sink deep into your hearts!) the fatal consequences of a wicked life.

451. Exercise.

Insert the dash and the parenthesis where they are required in the following examples:—

Horror burst the bands of sleep; but my feelings

words are too weak, too powerless to express them. The Egyptian style of architecture see Dr. Pocock, not his discourses but his prints was apparently the mother of the Greek. While they wished to please, and why should they not wish it, they disdained dishonorable means. If thou art he, so much respected once but, O, how fallen how degraded

THE PERIOD.

452. The **period** is used at the close of a declarative or an imperative sentence. It is also used to denote an abbreviation.

EXAMPLES.

Knowledge is not only pleasant, but useful and honorable.

Let what you have gained be an impulse to something higher.

If you will, you can rise. The age of MSS. is, in some instances, known by dates inserted in them.

453. Exercise.

Insert the period where it is required in the following examples:—

Truth is the basis of every virtue

It is the voice of reason Let its precepts be religiously obeyed Never transgress its limits Abhor a falsehood

I would say to the people, You cannot, without guilt and disgrace, stop where you are

The oration was delivered by J L Thompson, Esq

The event occurred B C 1001

What is said of the period?

To R H Dana, Jun Esq, the well-known author of "Two Years before the Mast," the community are greatly indebted

But the seasons are not alike in all countries of the same region, for the reasons already given See Chap VI § 2, ¶ 4, p 330

INTERROGATION POINT.

454. An **interrogation point** is used at the close of an interrogative sentence.

Ex.—Who comes there?

REM.—When an interrogative sentence is used as a subordinate clause,—

(1.) The interrogation point is employed when the clause is quoted directly.

Ex.—He said, Why do you weep?

(2.) The interrogation point is not employed where the clause is quoted indirectly.

Ex.—He asked me why I wept.

EXCLAMATION POINT.

455. A **exclamation point** is used at the close of an exclamatory sentence.

Ex.—How unsearchable are his ways!

REM.—An exclamation point is often used within a sentence, after an exclamatory expression or an interjection.

Ex.—O Jove Supreme! whom men and gods revere! O! let soft pity touch the mind!

How is the interrogation point used? The exclamation point? What remark?

456. Exercises.

Insert interrogation and exclamation points where they are required in the following examples:—

Daughter of Faith awake arise illume the dread unknown the chaos of the tomb

Whither shall I turn Wretch that I am To what place shall I betake myself

O Pascal thou wert pure in heart in this world, and now thou art in full sight of God

Apostles of liberty what millions attest the authenticity of your mission

To purchase heaven has gold the power

Who shall separate us from the love of Christ

Punctuate correctly in all respects the following examples:—

What a piece of work is man How noble in reason how infinite in faculties in form and moving how express and admirable in action how like an angel in apprehension how like a God

Dr H Marsh F R S &c Bishop of Peterborough b 1757 d 1839.

As the pupil is often obliged to bend all his faculties to the task before him and tears sometimes fall on the page he is studying so it is in the school of God's providence there are hard lessons in it

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITING.

457. **Brackets** ([]) are used when a word or phrase is introduced for explanation or connection.

Ex.—He [the teacher] thus explained the difficulty.

458. The **apostrophe** (') is used to denote either the possessive case, or the omission of a letter.

Ex.—John's; o'er.

459. The **quotation marks** ("") are used to include a passage taken verbatim from some other author.

Ex.—He said, "I relinquish my claim."

460. The **asterisk** (*), the **obelisk** (†), the **double dagger** (‡), and the **parallels** (||) are used to refer to notes in the margin or at the bottom of the page. Sometimes the **section** (§) and the **paragraph** (¶) are used. Also, small letters, or figures, which refer to notes at the foot of the page.

461. The **caret** (^) is used in writing to show that some letter, word, or phrase has been omitted.

Ex.—The pencil lies ^ the table.

462. The **hyphen** (-) is used to separate the parts of a compound word.

Ex.—Book-binder.

When placed at the end of a line, it shows that a word is divided, the remaining part being carried to the next line.

463. The **ellipsis** (***)(—) is used to denote the omission of certain letters or words.

Ex.—C***ll; K—g.

464. The **brace** { connects a number of words with one common term.

465. The **index** () points to some remarkable passage.

466. The **section** (§) denotes the divisions of a treatise.

467. The **paragraph** (¶) denotes the beginning of a new subject.

468. The vowel marks are the **diæresis** (‘), placed over the second of two vowels which are separated; the **long** sound (‐), placed over a long vowel; the **breve** or **short** sound (˘), placed over a short vowel; and accents, **grave** (‘), **acute** (‘), and **circumflex** (ˆ).

REM.—The best practical exercises on all these marks and points will be given by the teacher. Let the pupil be required to construct sentences involving the use of them; or let the teacher read, from some book, any passage which demands their use, and let the class insert them in their proper places.

469. Rules for the Use of Capital Letters.

1. The first word of every entire sentence should begin with a capital.

Ex.—Jesus wept.

2. Titles of honor and respect, and every proper name, and every adjective derived from a proper name, should begin with a capital.

Ex.—His Highness; Boston; Bostonian.

How is the brace used? Index? Section? Paragraph? What are the vowel marks? Give the rules for the use of capital letters.

3. Every appellation of the Deity should begin with a capital.

Ex.—God; Jehovah; the Eternal.

4. The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital.

5. The words “I” and “O” should always be capitals.

6. Any important word may begin with a capital.

7. The principal words in the title of books should begin with capitals.

Ex.—Pope's Essay on Man.

8. The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation forms a complete sentence of itself, should begin with a capital.

Ex.—He saith unto him, Feed my sheep.

APPENDIX.

LEST the inexperienced teacher should suppose that the merit of these exercises is dependent upon the *particular form* of giving them, it should be said, once for all, that it is the *spirit*, rather than the *mere method*, which gives value to the lesson. The chief object is secured when the children are led to *realize* the distinction to be made, from *primitive sources*, namely, the *examples* and *specimens* which contain it. The teacher *guides* their observations, and by well-directed questions *leads* to the desired conclusion. The three full methods below, for Lessons I., XIV., and XXVIII., have been furnished by one of the most successful teachers in one of our best normal schools.

METHOD FOR TEACHING LESSON I.

The teacher comes before the class having many objects at hand, but concealed from the children,—as an apple, a knife, a bell, a rose, some sugar, &c. &c.

TEACHER shows an apple to the class, and asks, What is this?

CHILDREN.—An apple.

TEACHER (to one child).—Mary, how do you know this is an apple?

CHILD.—I can *see* it.

The teacher calls upon other children to tell how they know it is an apple. After the children have stated, the teacher proceeds and pursues the same plan in regard to other objects.

TEACHER then tells several children to close their eyes, and, handing one of them a knife, says, What have you?

CHILD.—A knife.

The teacher then has each child, with closed eyes, take the knife and state what he has,—the children with eyes open deciding that they are right.

TEACHER then asks the first child who said it was a knife, How did you know that was a knife that you held in your hand?

CHILD.—I could *feel* that it was a knife.

The teacher has the other children who held the knife state similarly, and then pursues the same plan with several other objects.

TEACHER requests all the children to close their eyes, and then rings a bell, and, naming one child, says to him, What have I now?

CHILD.—A bell.

TEACHER.—What makes you think it is a bell?

CHILD.—I can *hear* it.

Other children state that the teacher has a bell.

The children then open their eyes, and decide by seeing, feeling, and hearing it that it is a bell. A similar plan is pursued with other objects.

TEACHER has the children close their eyes again, and, holding a fragrant rose under the nose of one of them, says, What have I now?

CHILD.—A rose.

Teacher has other children answer same question by a similar test, then has children open their eyes and decide by seeing it that it is a rose.

TEACHER asks one of the children that stated it was a rose, How did you know that was a rose, when your eyes were closed?

CHILD.—I could *smell* it.

Other children give same reason.

The teacher pursues a similar plan with other objects. The children again close their eyes, the teacher puts a little sugar on the tongue of several of them, and asks, What have you in your mouth?

CHILDREN.—Sugar.

The children open their eyes, and decide by seeing, smelling, feeling, and tasting that it is sugar.

TEACHER (to one of the children that said it was sugar, when their eyes were closed).—What made you think that was sugar, when your eyes were closed?

CHILD.—I could *taste* it.

Other children state similarly.

The teacher pursues a similar plan with other objects.

TEACHER, pointing to the objects lying on the table, says, What are these?

CHILDREN.—Rose, sugar, knife, &c. &c.

TEACHER.—Yes; but, without naming each, what can you call all of them?

CHILDREN.—Things.

TEACHER.—What have you found you can do with these things?

CHILDREN.—We can *see* them, or *feel* them; some of them we can *hear*, some we can *smell*, and some we can *taste*.

TEACHER.—Then these things are things that we can—

CHILDREN.—Things that we can see, feel, hear, smell, or taste.

The children recite this statement simultaneously.

TEACHER.—Who knows a name for these things that we can see, feel, hear, taste, or smell?

If children cannot tell, the teacher tells them we call them *objects*. Children repeat the word.

TEACHER.—What are objects?

CHILDREN.—Those things which we can *see*, *feel*, *hear*, *smell*, or *taste* are called *objects*.

The teacher has different children recite this statement individually, and then the class recite it.

The teacher then writes the statement upon the board as the children spell the more difficult words.

The teacher then questions the children upon the statement; after which it is erased.

The children are then required to tell what objects are, to name various objects, and tell why they call them objects, and also tell whether they can see, hear, feel, smell, or taste them.

The teacher then names objects, and the children tell whether they can see, hear, feel, smell, or taste them. Also, the children are required to name objects which they can see, some which they can hear, some which they can feel, smell, or taste. After this, assign Lesson I., p. 8.

LESSON II.

The methods of appeal to a child's *mental experience* are simple. Call up any occurrence familiar to both teacher and pupil, as a walk in the city, a visit to a steamer, to a museum, &c., or a stroll in the fields, a skating scene, or any other *actual* event fresh in the memory of the child, and draw from him the acknowledgment that *now* the whole scene *seems to be present* in his mind. Then apply test-questions upon the various objects in the scene. This is the counterpart to Lesson I. In that we have objects present to the *senses*; here we have *views* or *mental pictures* of objects present to the *mind*.

LESSON III.

In this lesson, the teacher at first employs, in contrast, the actual object as *now seen*, and the *mental picture* of it, or what seems to be seen when the object is put out of sight. He then leads the children to bring before the mind's eye objects at a distance, which *were once seen*, but *now seem to be seen*. Finally, he draws from them, or tells them, that what we thus *seem to see* are called *ideas*. To cultivate the habit of correctness and accuracy, he will subject their ideas to various tests, as to the *form, color, measure, situation, &c.* of the real objects.

LESSON IV.

To remind others of an object which we *see*, we may point to it; but to remind them of one which we *think of* but

do not see, we must use a *sign*. Lead the class to conclude that a word, as a sign, *expresses* or points out an idea to others.

LESSON V.

Our ideas do not stand *alone*; they come in *groups*. We cannot think of *snow* without thinking of it as *white*, *cold*, &c. Let the pupil see that he thinks of a living thing—a *bird*, for example—as *doing something*. He thinks of the *two together*, and in *telling* what he thinks he *says something* of the *bird* or *object* he thinks of. Draw from him this conclusion.

LESSON VI.

The pupil's attention is here directed to the *group of words* which expresses his thought. Let him, by examples, contrast this kind of group with another, in which nothing is *said* or *affirmed*, until he is prepared to be told that the words which *tell* or *express* a thought form a *sentence*.

LESSON VII.

The pupil will readily see, by examples, that he may not only *think*, but *say*, several things of one object, or one thing of several objects.

LESSON VIII.

Let the pupil see that when he speaks of this or that *individual* object he must give it an *individual* name, or a *descriptive* name that will represent it as an individual. Thus, to utter the word *book* would give to the child no idea of an *individual* or *particular book*. But "that brown book on William's desk" would point out the individual book meant. Examples should be multiplied till the case is made clear.

LESSON IX.

This lesson calls attention to the office of the *words* em-

ployed in Lesson VIII.,—one as *principal*, and the others clustering around it to *limit* its application. Let the pupils derive the conclusion from illustrations and examples.

LESSON X.

This lesson requires the pupil to think of the meaning of a sentence as a whole. Examples will enable him to distinguish the classes.

LESSON XI.

The important work of *writing* sentences has already commenced, or is now to be taken up with the purpose of making it a *practical* means of expressing thoughts. The teacher will introduce other rules and cautions in addition to those in the lesson. Let these be thoroughly learned and always put to practice.

LESSONS XII. AND XIII.

Can be easily illustrated and explained. They are the first *practical* separations of a sentence into its parts. These are (not in the technical sense) *parts of speech*. The teacher may combine with this the further separation of these two parts into *principal* and *limiting*, as in Lesson IX. But in this case no attention is to be paid to the *words* as *parts of speech*, but only as used to represent the *subject* or the *predicate*, or to show in *what sense* these are limited.

LESSONS XIV.—XXVII.

Open to the pupil the idea of *classifying* words, and of pointing out their *uses* in the sentence. In fact, the classification depends partly upon the *meaning* and partly upon the *use* of words. The Model for XIV., with some variations, will serve as a hint for all the rest. The main point is to show the *basis* of the classification, and to make a clear distinction between the *word* and *that* which it represents.

METHOD FOR LESSON XIV.

TEACHER (pointing to one of the class).—Who is this?
CHILDREN.—*Mary.*

The children spell the word, as the teacher writes it upon the black-board.

TEACHER (holding a pencil in the hand).—What have I?
CHILDREN.—*A pencil.*

The teacher writes as the children spell.

TEACHER (touching the table).—What is this?
CHILDREN.—*The table.*

In a similar manner the teacher obtains and writes upon the board—the children spelling—*chair, rubber, knife, John, book, apple, —, —, —, —, —, —,* in all some twenty or thirty names.

TEACHER (pointing to the words on the board).—What are these?

CHILDREN.—*Words.*

TEACHER (pointing to the word *Mary*).—What is this?
CHILDREN.—*The word Mary.*

TEACHER.—When you say *Mary*, whom do you mean?

CHILDREN.—*That girl* (pointing).

TEACHER.—How do we all know you mean her?

CHILDREN.—Because *Mary* is her name.

TEACHER.—What have you learned about this word?

CHILDREN.—*The word Mary* is the name of that girl.

TEACHER (pointing to the word *pencil*).—What is this?

CHILDREN.—*The word pencil.*

TEACHER.—What do you mean by this word?

CHILDREN.—*That pencil* (pointing to it).

TEACHER (laying pencil on the table, so as to use *this* word and *that* pencil).—This word *pencil* is what of that pencil?

CHILDREN.—*The name of the pencil.*

Let the whole class make this decision, and give it both individually

and simultaneously, and let the teacher continue the same plan with the other words.

TEACHER (pointing to the list of words).—What have you found of these?

CHILDREN.—They are *words*; and are names of a *girl*, a *pencil*, a *table*, a *chair*, &c.

TEACHER.—What have you already learned to call girls, pencils, tables, &c.?

CHILDREN.—Objects.

TEACHER.—Then you can say these words are—what?

CHILDREN.—They are names of objects.

Let each pupil make this decision.

TEACHER.—Each word is—what?

CHILDREN.—Each word is the name of an object.

Let this be impressed upon the class by individual or simultaneous recitation.

TEACHER.—What do we call a word that is the name of an object?

CHILDREN (hesitatingly).—An *object-word*; (perhaps some) *the name of an object*.

TEACHER.—Yes; an object-word, or, which means the same, a *noun*.

The children repeat the word.

TEACHER.—What is a noun?

CHILDREN.—The name of an object is a noun. See **29**, Lesson XIV.

The teacher, erasing all from the board, will review the whole, by asking for the meaning of *noun*, *name*, *object*; also, for examples of nouns. Then, turning to Lesson XIV., and giving out the Exercise (**30**), let 2, 4, and 5 be done upon the slate.

NOTE.—It will be understood that these are *objects* to the *senses*. Objects of *thought* should be brought forward gradually.

METHOD FOR LESSON XXVIII.

The teacher requests the children to give some nouns.

Children pronounce and spell, and the teacher writes upon the board, the following or others, about twenty or thirty in all: John, stove, Providence, pencil, boy, table, city, Sarah, &c. &c.

TEACHER (pointing to the words).—What are these?

CHILDREN.—Words; nouns.

TEACHER.—Why are they nouns?

CHILDREN.—Because they are names of objects.

TEACHER.—Then each word is—what?

CHILDREN.—Each word is the name of an object.

TEACHER (pointing to the word John).—This word is the name of what object?

CHILD.—It is *his* name (pointing to the boy John).

TEACHER.—Why do you say it is his name?

CHILD.—Because that name *belongs* to him.

TEACHER.—How came he to have that name? (or, How did he get that name?)

CHILD.—It was *given* to him.

TEACHER.—Instead of saying it was *given* to him, or it *belongs* to him, we may say the name *applies* to him.

The children repeat the word *applies*.

TEACHER.—What have you learned of this word John?

CHILD.—That it is a noun, and is a name that applies to the boy John.

Children repeat statement.

The teacher pursues the same plan with other proper nouns, the children stating similar conclusion of each.

TEACHER (pointing to the word Providence).—What have you learned of this?

CHILD.—That it is a noun, and is the name that applies to the city of Providence.

TEACHER.—To what other city does it apply?

CHILD.—To no other city.

TEACHER.—Instead of saying the noun Providence applies to the city of Providence, and to no other city, you can say it applies to which city?

CHILD.—To just that city alone.

The same plan should be pursued with other proper nouns, the children saying that the noun John applies to just one boy, the noun Sarah to just one girl, &c. &c.

TEACHER.—What are cities, boys, girls, &c.?

CHILD.—Objects.

TEACHER.—Then you can say each of these nouns applies to what?

CHILD.—To just one object.

TEACHER.—Instead of saying *just one* object, we may say an *individual* object.

TEACHER.—What may we say?

CHILD.—An individual object.

The children repeat *individual object*.

TEACHER (pointing to proper nouns).—What have you learned of these words?

CHILD.—Each is a noun which applies to an individual object.

TEACHER.—What kind of a noun do we call such a noun?

If children do not know (as it cannot be expected they will), the teacher tells them that such a noun is a *proper* noun, because *proper* means applying to an individual as *his own*.

The children repeat the word *proper*.

TEACHER.—What is a proper noun?

CHILD.—*A noun which is applied to an individual object is a proper noun.*

The teacher has the children recite this definition separately and together. The children spell the more difficult words, and the teacher writes the statement on the board.

TEACHER (pointing to the word *boy*).—What is this?

CHILD.—The word *boy* is a noun.

TEACHER.—What have you learned of this noun?

CHILD.—It is a name which applies to an object.

TEACHER.—To what object?

CHILD.—To a boy.

TEACHER.—To which boy?

CHILDREN.—To any boy; to every boy; to each boy.

TEACHER.—To each boy of what? (or, of how many boys?)

CHILD.—To each boy of all the boys.

TEACHER.—What may you call the boys together?

CHILD.—A lot of boys. A crowd of boys, &c.

TEACHER.—Yes; but what do you call a number of them together in school?

CHILD.—A class of boys.

TEACHER.—Yes. Then what can we call all the boys together?

CHILD.—A *class* of boys.

TEACHER.—What have you learned of this word (boy)?

CHILD.—That it is a noun, and may apply to each one of the whole class of boys.

The teacher pursues the same plan with other common nouns, the children making similar statements of each and then of all.

TEACHER.—What are boys, stoves, &c.?

CHILD.—Objects.

TEACHER.—Then what can you say, instead of naming boys, stoves, &c.?

CHILD.—Objects.

TEACHER.—What have you learned, then, of each of these (pointing to boy, stove, &c.)?

CHILD.—Each is a noun that may apply to each one of a class of objects.

TEACHER.—What can you say instead of *one*, here?

CHILD.—Individual.

TEACHER.—Yes. Give the whole statement.

CHILD.—Each is a noun that may apply to each individual of a class of objects.

TEACHER.—What kind of a noun is such a noun?

The teacher here tells the children what it means for several persons to have any thing (as a *name*, here) *in common*, and says, Such a noun is called a *common noun*.

The children repeat the word *common*.

TEACHER.—What is a common noun?

CHILD.—*A noun which may apply to each individual of a class of objects is a common noun.*

The children recite the definition individually and simultaneously, and spell the more difficult words.

The teacher writes the statement on the board, then has the children read both statements from the board, and asks questions upon them.

The teacher then erases them, and has the children state what a proper noun is, what a common noun is, and give examples of each kind, stating *why* in each case.

The teacher also gives words, requiring the children to select the nouns, and tell whether they are common or proper, and *why* in each case.

NOTE.—Observe here that the common noun is developed in the singular number. Let the children see that if it applies to *each* it applies to any *two* or *more* considered together. But this is best done when the subject of *number* is developed by a similar method. In these first developments the aim should be to unfold the *prominent points*, rather than to secure exhaustive definitions.

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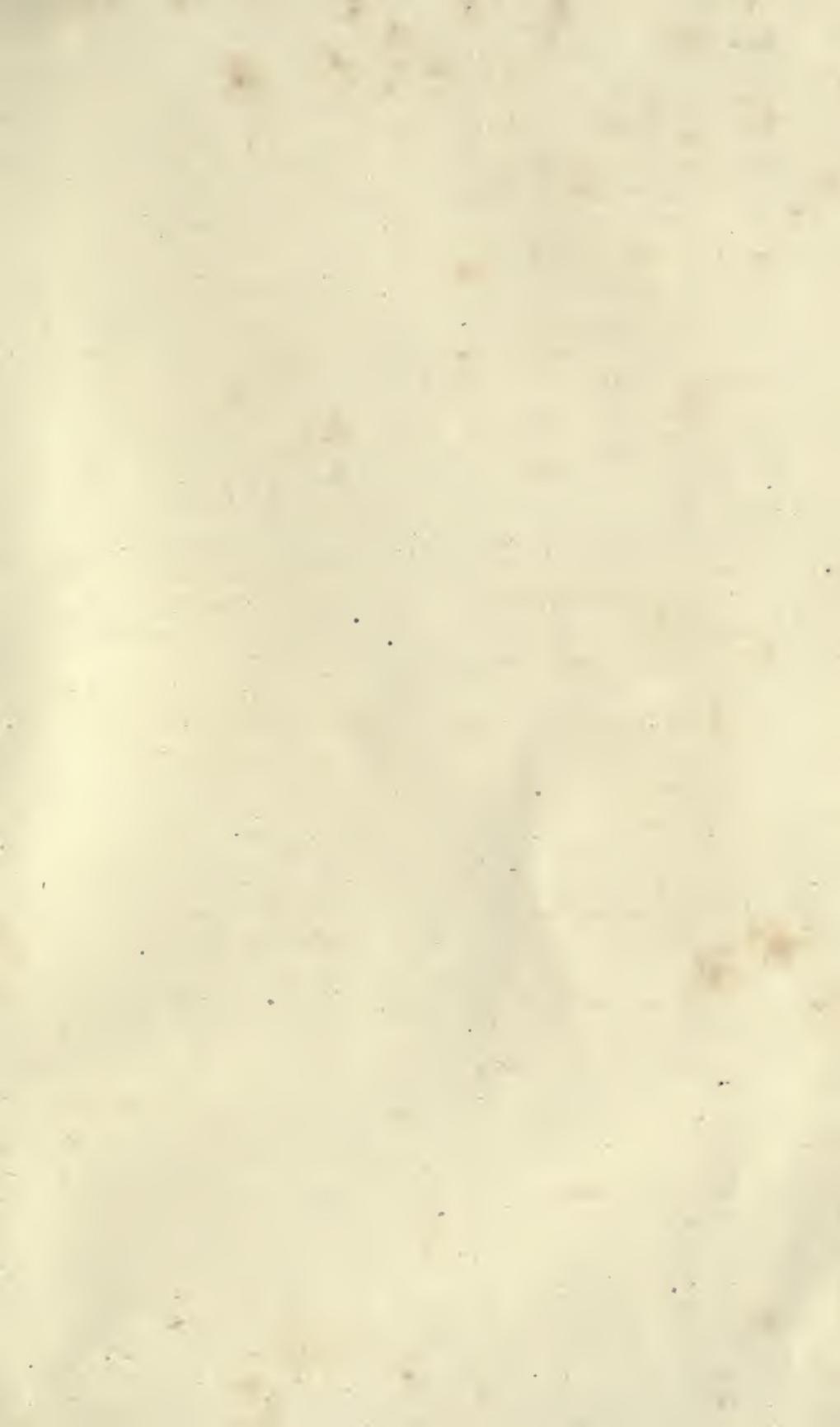
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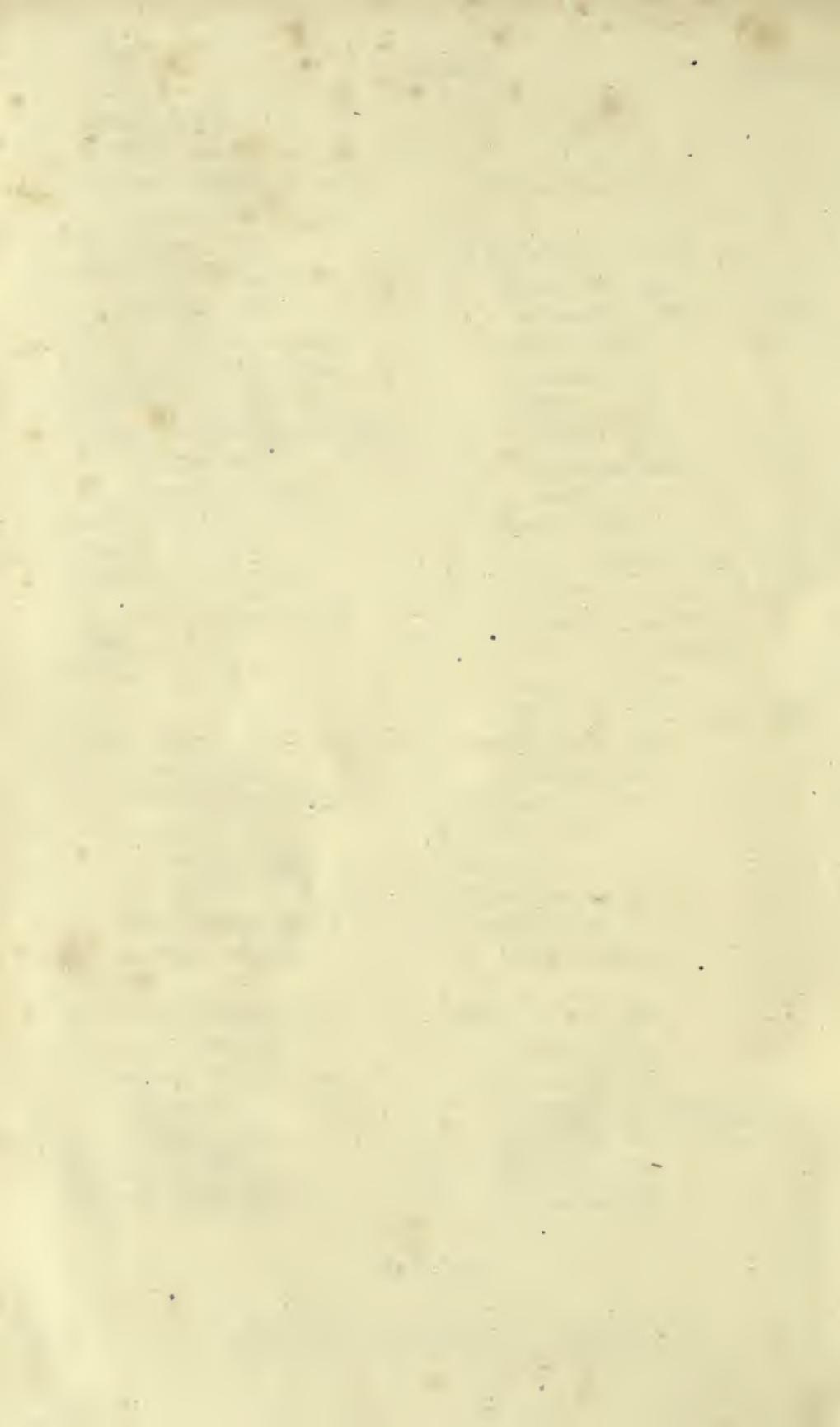
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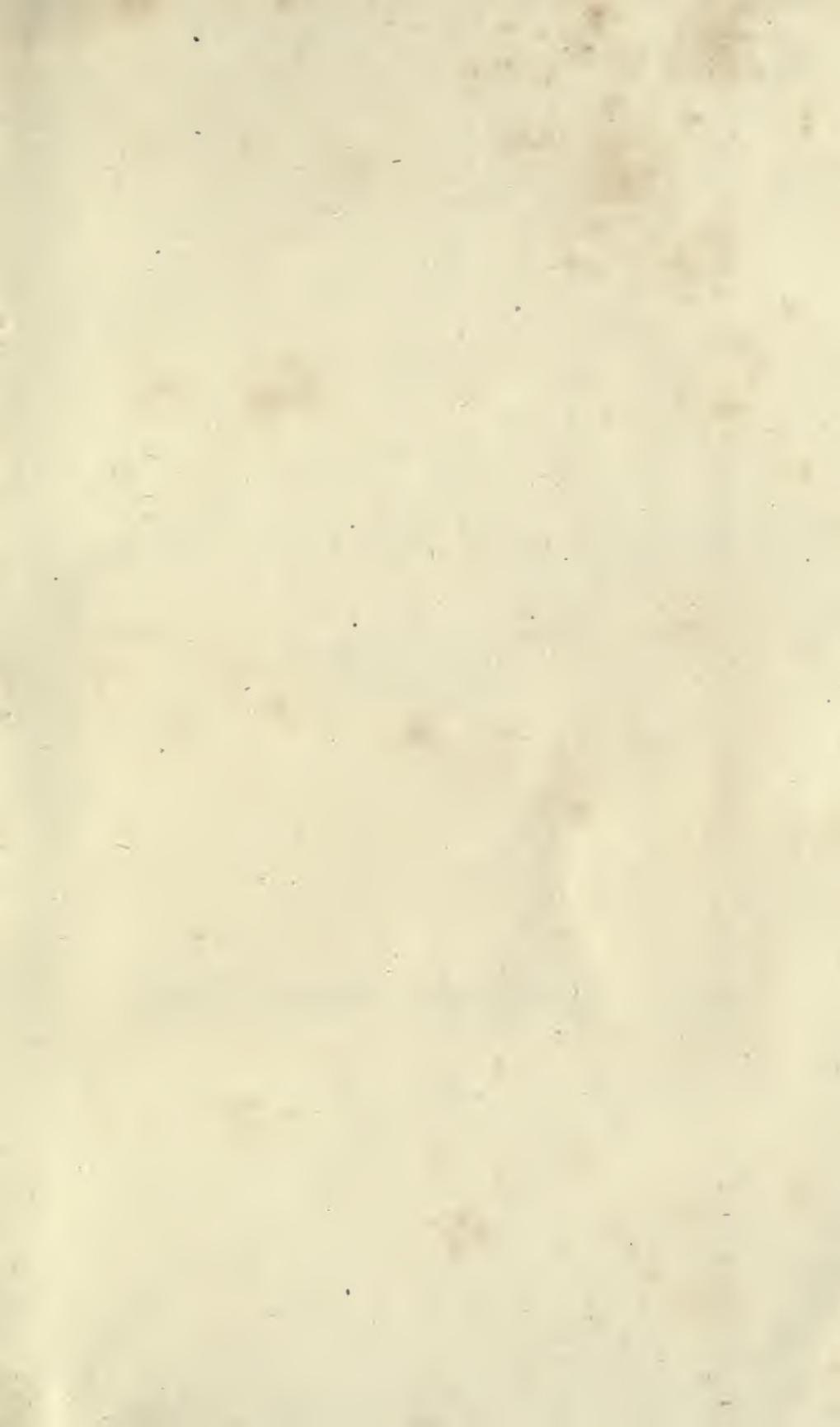
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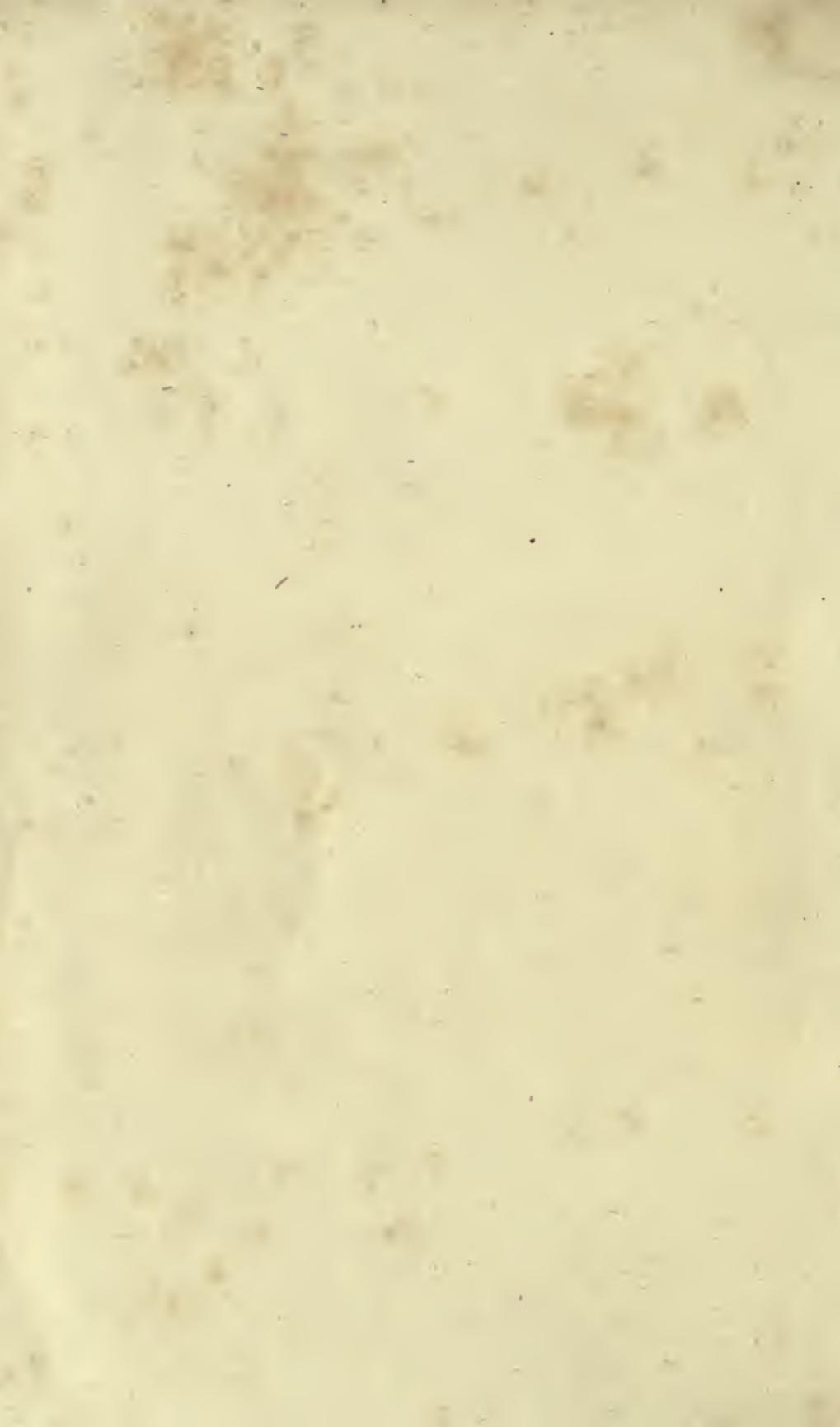
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